

The Nation.

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The Week.

Certain dark oracles were uttered by Vice-President Fairbanks at the Irrigation Congress in California on Monday. He referred to unnamed "doctrinaires" who are "encouraging commercial unrest," and mysteriously hinted that "unwise policies" might result in "arresting" business. He also dwelt upon "confidence," and warned his hearers against any rash man who should try to "undermine" it. Now, whom or what could the Vice-President have meant? If he had not expressly declared that he was not talking politics, we should have known what to suspect. If a Democrat had said these things, we should have understood the references. But it cannot be that things have come to such a pass that a Republican aspirant to the Presidency should even allude to Mr. Roosevelt as a "doctrinaire." The right to hurl that adjective is exclusively reserved to the President: to apply it to him, is almost as bad as calling him a nature-faker. Can it be that the "woolly horse" of Indiana is taking his revenge? Or has Taft's complete identification of himself with Roosevelt compelled Fairbanks to stand apart? One mistake the Vice-President certainly appears to have made. He said that we have "a surfeit of politics," and now need "more business and less politics." That will seem a hard doctrine in Indiana. There they eat, drink, and sleep politics.

Speaker Cannon's interview, published very widely last week, is worth the careful attention of every man who would know what chance the President has of obtaining from Congress the "more drastic" laws which he has declared to be necessary. As Speaker, which he surely will be again if he lives, he will have enormous power in shaping the legislative action of the House, and his ideas of what that should be he gives in words that cannot fail to be taken at Oyster Bay as a threat. Premising that the session of Congress beginning next December will fall at a critical time, both financially and politically, Speaker Cannon emits this warning note:

If Congress does not act wisely at the next session; if it is not actuated by calmness and patriotism; if it makes great mistakes and fails to meet the approval of the reasoning American public, there will not be much need for the election of delegates to the next National Convention of the Republican party.

That may seem very general and orphic,

but further on in the interview Mr. Cannon becomes more precise. "It would be a crime," he declares, "if Congress should do anything at this time to upset business." This might seem only an echo of the familiar cry of the lotus-eating tariff beneficiaries: "Let us alone." But that cannot be what the Speaker means this time. It has been generally agreed by high Republican authorities, including Lodge, Taft, and the President himself, that nothing shall be done about tariff revision either this year or next. So the "crime" which is troubling the spirit of Uncle Joe cannot be the laying of a sacrilegious hand upon the ark of the high tariff. The President's thoughts are all of making old laws more stringent, and getting new ones. And there can be little doubt that all this is clearly in the Speaker's mind when he says that Congress must give its strength to the passing of the appropriations, and refrain with a holy horror from making any of the "mistakes" which would upset business and the Republican party at the same time.

If additional evidence were wanted to disprove the "absolute necessity" of our fleet's presence in the Pacific, it may be had in the growing tale of Japan's difficulties and misfortunes. Her financial condition is serious, with taxation mounting to the maximum of endurance and the national credit showing signs of exhaustion in a period of tight money markets. The two years since the close of the war have been marked by a succession of internal disasters. The treaty of Portsmouth had scarcely been signed when news of the devastating famine in the northern provinces began to replace the bulletins of Japanese victories in Manchuria. Famine, at the present moment, is again threatening the country; Hakodate, laid low by fire, has 60,000 homeless sufferers; Tokio alone shelters 80,000 victims of recent floods. Much nearer home than San Francisco or the Philippines, Korea calls for attention on the part of the Government; and the increase of anti-Japanese feeling among the Europeans in China, not excluding the subjects of friendly and allied Great Britain, is a factor which any prudent government would consider before setting out to pick a new quarrel. Japan is now busy paying the price for her new dignity as a great Power, and, in all human reason, should have had enough of greatness for a while.

The desire for a Democrat who has "carried" some necessary Northern State is partly responsible for the mention of Lieut.-Gov. Chanler as a Presidential possibility. Thus we find that, while no

one appears to have anything but a good word for "New York's dark horse," the real reason for his availability is contained in the figures which show how far he ran ahead of Hearst last fall. Democrats with qualifications of this sort did not figure to such a degree in the canvass of 1904. Parker's own sweep of New York State had been in an off-year, as far back as 1897. To-day there can be enlisted, if not a regiment, at least a good corporal's guard of Democrats who have won fights in the enemy's country. While New York has a Republican Governor with a complement of Democratic State officials, there are seven States in which the conditions are just reversed. Chamberlain of Oregon, Toole of Montana, Sparks of Nevada, Burke of North Dakota, Folk of Missouri, Johnson of Minnesota, and Higgins of Rhode Island all were elected in the face of opposition strong enough to carry all or part of the other State offices. The wonder is that with this unusual, if not unprecedented, condition, any Democrat can hold the view that there is only one available candidate, and he the twice-defeated Bryan.

In his attack on the courts at the Jamestown Exposition on Monday Mr. Gompers betrayed a one-sided habit of thought. As a labor leader, he was, of course, bound to rail at the writ of injunction, yet he gave strange reasons for his opposition. He said that it deprives "the laboring men of our country of their Constitutional guarantee, before the law; it is an indirect assertion of a property right in men when these men are workmen engaged in a lawful effort; it never was intended and never should be applied to deprive men of their personal rights or the right of man's ownership of himself." These objections, even granting that they were well founded, are precisely those which the non-union worker urges against the acts of the union. It deprives him of his liberty and tells him: "Your attempt to work in opposition to our fiat is unlawful. You do not own yourself; we own you."

The decline in the price of British consols, and the high rates paid by New York city for money, are two among many symptoms of the demand for new capital. One of the best evidences of its magnitude is afforded by the statistics, just made public by the British Board of Trade, of the organization of stock companies in Great Britain during the past twenty years. It appears that the number of "going" companies, after throwing out those which have disappeared as the result of incompetent or

dishonest management, increased from 10,494 in 1887 to 23,728 in 1897, and 43,038 in 1907. The increase in numbers, however, is less significant than the increase in amount of paid-up capital. This stood at £591,508,692 in 1887, £1,285,042,021 in 1897, and £2,061,010,586 in 1907. It would be misleading to interpret this remarkable increase as an accurate measure of the growth in industry. While such a growth is a factor in the increase in corporation capital, the larger part undoubtedly represents the conversion of private partnerships into joint-stock companies. British industrial enterprises, therefore, have appeared in the money market during the past twenty years with an average annual appeal for about £70,000,000 of new capital, the actual needs being probably larger in the last few years than in some of the earlier years. It is not surprising that with this demand for company capital encountering demands from the Government for about \$800,000,000 in new consols and similar securities since 1898, there was sharp bidding for the supply in the market. Consols suffered in price, and rates for money rose. This acute demand for capital has not been limited to Great Britain. The computation which is made annually by *Le Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* of the output of new securities throughout the world placed the amount of such issues in 1906, outside the United States, at \$4,350,000,000, subject to reduction by refunding and conversion operations to about \$2,500,000,000. If to this is added about \$1,000,000,000 for the United States, the net new issues of 1906 stood at about \$3,500,000,000. These figures in themselves are a sufficient explanation of the scarcity of capital at the present time, and the difficulty of floating new enterprises. Other influences may have accentuated the disturbance in the stock markets, especially in our own; but even very favorable political conditions would be incapable of calling out capital adequate for meeting recent demands.

The action of the Erie Railroad directors, in the matter of dividends on the stock, calls for a word of comment. The case of the Erie is in some respects similar to that of the Southern Railway, which recently reduced its semi-annual dividend from 2½ to 1½ per cent.; that is to say, in each case the company was capable of earning and paying its usual dividend, provided it could borrow on reasonable terms the money imperatively needed for work on road-bed and rolling stock. Unable thus to procure the money—which would have been a proper enough charge on capital account—the Southern used for the purpose so large a part of its actual revenues that the surplus left after paying interest charges was too small to provide for the usual dividend disburse-

ment. The Erie actually earned a surplus large enough for the purpose, though this may conceivably have been because its appropriation from earnings for improvements was less liberal than the Southern's; but it was nevertheless equally confronted with the dilemma of providing for future expenditure on property. Rather than omit the dividend, or reduce it like the Southern, Erie's directors resorted to an old-time expedient whereby dividends at the previous rate are paid to shareholders, not in cash, but in "scrip" or "warrants," bearing 4 per cent. annual interest, and redeemable in cash ten years from now. This action, we think, is open to serious criticism. The fundamental fact is that the company is borrowing to pay dividends, and at an hour when use of credit ought to be cautious in the extreme. Even if the operation is conceded to be, as Wall Street describes it, a mere forced loan from the company's own shareholders, at a lower rate than the general money market grants, that does not alter the fact that Erie is going in debt unnecessarily, and is laying on its future resources a burden of \$1,600,000—the amount of the dividends declared—in order to avoid the unpleasant duty of cutting down payments to the shareholders. The expedient is no doubt ingenious, but to test its validity, one need only ask what the consequences would be if all of the railways were to adopt it. The resulting situation would be as mischievous as absurd, and it could end only in the entanglement of railway finance and the discredit of the companies.

While Gov. Hughes is explaining in speeches his idea of regulating corporations through a Public Service Commission, that Commission itself is illustrating the method by action. The orders which it has just issued for the betterment of transit conditions in New York are to be put into effect only after a hearing. If the companies can show that the increase of cars and trains is physically impossible, then the orders will not be enforced. This is reasonable and fair to all concerned. Investigation has preceded the step now contemplated, and the traction managers are, out of abundant precaution, to be allowed to consider the matter, and to present their side of the case. Anybody can see how far superior this plan is to the old one of going to the Legislature to get separate bills passed for the relief of passenger traffic in this city. That meant a struggle at Albany over two or three measures, with more or less success, and then an end for a year of all attempts at improvement. To-day, however, we have a body continuously sitting, clothed with all the power of the Legislature in transit matters, and able to hear complaints, study remedies, and issue or-

ders, year in and year out. There is promise in this of regulation that regulates.

In deciding to contest in the courts the power of the Public Service Commission to order the Interborough-Metropolitan to open its books, the lawyers of that corporation have acted after the manner of their kind. They see "a chance" that the law may be declared unconstitutional, or that it may be technically defective as regards a holding company, and so they are for a legal fight over the question. They may be right, from the professional point of view, but we are convinced that the course they advise is exceedingly unwise. If their contest reveal a flaw in the statute, the Legislature will be certain to mend it next winter. Should the whole measure be declared unconstitutional, we should say that an investigation by the Legislature of the whole unsavory past of the Metropolitan would surely follow. But leaving all these hazards out of the account, how mistaken and impossible is the policy of secrecy as respects a public-service corporation like this. Its future stability and success will depend almost wholly upon public confidence, and how can that be won if the accounts be concealed, and the impression given that the books will not bear inspection by the Commission? Absolute frankness and entire publicity are now the only course for such companies, and counsel who advise anything else give bad advice, no matter how "eminent" they may be.

Canada is fast taking rank with the Australasian Colonies of Great Britain as an almost hysterical champion of the "all-white continent" idea. The immigration of some two thousand Japanese in the course of a year has been sufficient to throw British Columbia into a fever of protest which is said to be quite as intense as our own San Francisco upheaval. The anti-Japanese agitation tends to assume more and more the character of an epidemic, since it is inconceivable that Canada, with her vast empty spaces, should so soon begin to protect herself by raising barriers against immigration. British Columbia has a population of less than half a person to the acre; it is admitted that the Japanese would be useful in connection with the extensive railway-building operations now under way; the country has not seriously felt the curse of Asiatic immigration; yet "there is a feeling among the inhabitants generally that there is a menace behind the movement." If the menace consists in the fact that, in view of Japan's prestige, Canada will not be able to avail herself of the Japanese laborer to a certain point and then turn upon him as we have done upon the Chinese, that may

be true. But as for his underbidding the white workingman, there is ample authority to show that the Oriental quickly learns to rise to the highest prevailing scale of wages. "There was a time," so runs the complaint, "when the white man and the Indian were employed in the fisheries of the Fraser River, but they have been crowded out by the Japanese." Since Canada is conceded to be enjoying uncommon prosperity and has no threatening idle class, this can only mean that the Japanese have crowded the white fisherman into more remunerative employment.

This is a day for giving thanks that we are not like our British cousins who tolerate a war secretary who buys 400,000 horseshoes in another country, for no other reason than that they are "satisfactory, both as regards price and efficiency." If we let price and efficiency govern our buying, Heaven only knows what would become of our government contracts. But there is something uncommonly queer about Mr. Haldane's contemptible horseshoes. They were not made in any of the countries which on the maps of our protectionists are blocked out in the tint which stands for "pauper labor." In fact, they were made in the United States of America, where wages and the standard of living are higher than anywhere else in the world. Thus, after confessing by a tariff of one cent per pound that our own horseshoe-makers are unable to withstand free competition with other nations, we see these same horseshoe-makers getting the business of a foreign government—which, more than a private customer, would give the benefit of every doubt to the English bidder—in the face of that same open competition. The product in question is not a large factor in the industrial world, yet there is one famous parable which begins with a horseshoe and a horseshoe nail and ends with the loss of a kingdom.

The passage of the Deceased Wife's Sister bill was sure to cause serious trouble in the Church of England. The Archbishop of Canterbury and the Bishop of London have forbidden their clergy to celebrate or recognize such marriages. On the other hand, the Assistant Bishop of Manchester takes a directly contrary view, holding that any kind of social or religious boycott of those who with a clear conscience take advantage of the amended law would be unjust. In case a clergyman of the Canterbury province disregarded the warning of the Archbishop, he would incur no penalty but a reprimand for performing a perfectly legal act. If, however he followed the Archbishop's advice, he would be within his rights, as no clergyman is bound to read the marriage ser-

vice on demand. Yet it surely cannot help the Church to place herself deliberately in opposition to the law of the land. And if the refusal of some clergyman to perform a legal marriage ceremony should be brought to the attention of the Prime Minister, he might imitate the letter which Lord John Russell wrote to the Dean of Hereford, who had informed him that he would not vote for Dr. Hampden (accused of unorthodoxy) as Bishop. It ran:

SIR: I have had the honor to receive your letter of the 22nd inst., in which you intimate to me your intention of violating the law. I have, etc.,

J. RUSSELL.

An all-inclusive benigance irradiates the German Emperor's address to his Westphalian subjects at Münster. Catholics and Protestants, farmers and industrialists, workmen and burgesses are told that they are equal sharers in their monarch's affection and devoted service. There is no denouncing of selfish interests, no riding down of rebellious Social-Democrats. This a great change from the purple passion of less than two years ago, when the loosened sabre was constantly being rattled in its case, the powder was continually being reexamined to make quite sure that it was dry, and Germany, like a man suffering from the mania of persecution, was everlastingly facing the world, "hand on hip, eyes straight to the front." The Emperor's new attitude is indicative of the general relaxation in the strain of European politics. The Continent seems to have awakened from an evil dream of plots and ambushes, the bitter aftertaste, no doubt, of the war between Russia and Japan. Passions have subsided, and why should not the Kaiser grow affable? England, instead of being the arch-plotter of Germany's ruin, has recently shown, through her King, a desire to arrive at an amiable understanding. France, with her new problem of Morocco, can harbor no evil designs. The Social-Democrats have been beaten and chastened by defeat, promised at their recent Congress to be good in the matter of rendering loyal military service.

A sharp controversy has been raging in the European press over the question whether Gambetta secretly visited Bismarck in 1878. Francis Laur, Gambetta's literary executor, has published an article asserting that he did, and giving details (rather vague, it must be admitted) of the conversation between the two statesmen. But he offers not a scrap of documentary proof. He is not even sure whether the interview took place at Friedrichsruh or at Varzin. This is rather disconcerting, especially in view of the fact that Bismarck never made the slightest reference in his reminiscences or letters to the visit of Gam-

betta, if it occurred, and that the minute Busch never mentioned it. Indeed, Count Herbert Bismarck did not know of the affair, and now roundly asserts that M. Laur is building upon nothing but conjecture. That Gambetta made several tours in Germany *incognito* was well known before. It is wholly possible that he may have passed through Friedrichsruh as one of many unknown travellers. But that he actually saw Bismarck and had a confidential three hours' talk with him, cannot yet be regarded as established. What M. Laur makes perfectly certain, however, is that Bismarck came to feel more kindly towards Gambetta, as towards the French republic, and that he would have welcomed a better understanding with France. To Gambetta's credit also must be set down the fact that he discarded the policy of implacable *revanche*, and saw the advantage of getting on good terms with Germany long before the possibility of such a thing was conceded by the vast majority of Frenchmen. On the other hand, M. Laur admits that Gambetta did not foresee at all the alliance with Russia, which was so soon to become the fixed policy and hope of France.

The anti-clerical agitation in Italy, while losing nothing in effectiveness, shows signs of recovery from the hysteria evoked by the charges brought against the Salesian brothers at Varazze and against religious institutions elsewhere. Over the testimony of the boy Besson, a pupil of the Salesians who has given circumstantial accounts of the most shocking practices in the Cloister School where he was a student, a warm controversy is now in full tilt. A part of the press, supported by the opinions of "experts," asserts that the lad is the victim of his own delusions and that his stories regarding the celebration of the Black Mass were derived from the edifying "revelations" of Leo Taxil. But the more respectable section of the radical press has gone on from the discussion of isolated scandals to urge a thorough investigation of all the institutions maintained by the Salesians in Italy. These are some eighty in number, and include academic institutions, trade and art schools, and printing establishments. The vows of poverty imposed by the founder of the order, Don Bosco, are, according to the *Vita* of Rome, flagrantly violated. High fees are charged to outside pupils, while poor boys, taken in by the brothers under the guise of charity, are in reality shamelessly exploited, being compelled to perform hard labor in return for the barest sustenance. From the printing-press of the order, continues the *Vita*, issue edifying works in which Jews are represented as cutting open the veins of helpless Christians and drinking their blood.

TWO YEARS OF THE LIBERALS.

The proroguing of Parliament invites to a taking of stock of the Liberal party, after two years in power. First, as to leaders, present and prospective—always the most interesting question in politics. How are the old men faring? What new men are coming forward? Of the Prime Minister, it must at least be said that he has held his own. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was at first thought of as a mere stop-gap Premier; he has shown himself a unifying and directing force in his party, for whom it would be very hard to find a substitute. His bluff vigor, Scotch wariness, and personal kindness have enhanced his authority. He is, however, well stricken in years, and his health is none of the firmest; so that he can scarcely be expected long to bear the burdens of the party leadership.

Next after him comes Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, a cool head and powerful debater; but there are both personal and political reasons why he could hardly be expected to succeed Sir Henry. Mr. Haldane, the War Minister, has shown marked ability, and has carried a bill for army reform through Parliament in a way greatly to heighten his prestige. But he is not thought of for the party leadership. No more is Mr. Birrell, who has filled two difficult offices and adorned them by witty and pregnant speech such as might have been expected from this lit'ry feller in politics. Mr. Morley has seemed almost buried in the India Office. Winston Churchill, on the contrary, has often been to the fore. His aggressive and somewhat bumptious manner, his hard hitting in debate—he is said to be the only Liberal who could stand up and give Chamberlain as good, as he got from him—and his keen instinct for what is popular with the masses have given him the reputation of a man who has risen fast, but may easily go far. Another of the young men of great promise is Lewis Harcourt. He had charge of the land bill in the Commons, and conducted it to passage with such skill as to win praise from his adversaries. Lord Rosebery, as a brilliant free lance, has apparently taken himself out of the running. If the party leadership were now to fall vacant, Sir Edward Grey, the Foreign Secretary, would be preferred before him.

Turning to "measures, not men," there is necessarily a sense of disappointment in weighing Liberal achievement against Liberal hopes and promises. This, however, is nearly always the case when a party comes into power with a great majority. It expects to make all things new, but the tough old world refuses to be altered while you wait. The Liberals have had two peculiar difficulties in the way of carrying out their programme of legislation—the Lords and

the Irish. The former have got in the way of educational and electoral and land reform; the latter have wrecked the Irish Councils bill. Yet a calm estimate of the whole legislative record would show a respectable balance in favor of the Liberals. They have been a working government. They have put through a large number of bills for legal and mercantile and social reform. Their land bill, though but a modest beginning, may prove epoch-making. And in the conduct of foreign affairs they have been eminently successful.

Trouble is plainly afoot in Ireland, but this will not necessarily mean disadvantage to the Liberals as a party. They have tried conciliation, but it has been rejected by the Nationalists; now if they are called upon to put down sedition, they will surely do it with firmness, and thereby rob the Tories of a favorite weapon. Nor is the lot of the Irish themselves altogether happy, except as they are happiest when in a turmoil. Mr. Redmond is having to defend himself from attacks in the rear. The new Sinn Féin party in Ireland speaks as bitterly of the Irish Nationalists as the latter do of the English. The tactics of the Sinn Féin movement, which appears to be making rapid headway, is to withdraw the Irish representation at Westminster altogether, as an idle farce which merely serves to keep certain politicians in office, paid out of the Irish Fund, and to set up a sort of National Council of the people's own in Ireland. This, of course, would be extra-legal, but its decisions might be binding on Irishmen. It is proposed, also, to establish tribunals for the settlement of civil disputes, leaving the English judges in Ireland with nothing to do; to encourage a sort of passive resistance to taxation; to keep Irishmen from enlisting in the army, or taking service on the police; to buy only articles of Irish production or manufacture, and, in a multitude of ways, to make Ireland look to herself instead of to England. By such means, the leaders of the Sinn Féin party argue, Hungary attained her national recognition, and wrested the *Ausgleich* from Austria. Something of that kind is aimed at for Ireland. It will scarcely come in that way, but the striving for it will mean great bitterness and disturbance among the Irish factions. The Liberals can afford to await the outcome.

A few months ago, the Conservatives were talking with great confidence of an early Liberal break-up, and their own return to office. Of this less is heard recently. The Liberals have a good deal to show, and are going about the kingdom saying, with much plausibility, that they would have had much more had it not been for an obstructive Tory House of Lords. This looks like a good card, as may be seen by the nervousness

which Mr. Balfour and Lord Lansdowne betray over its production. Furthermore, the swelling of the Socialist and Labor vote at bye-elections, if it means fresh demands upon the Liberals, bodes no good to the Conservatives. Hence the sober opinion of the cooler-headed Tories is that the Liberals are pretty sure to remain in power at least two years more.

SOCIALISM GROWING SOBER.

That Socialism is becoming conservative is a fair statement of the impression produced on the outside world by the International Congress which met at Stuttgart during the week of August 18-25. The practical spirit manifested in the resolutions adopted by some nine hundred delegates from all the six continents, is not an entirely new phenomenon in the Socialist movement, for it is no paradox to say that both the recent triumphs and recent defeats of the party have served to endow its leaders with a sense of responsibility that we are not accustomed to associate with the utterances of the extreme collectivist partisan. On the one hand, if Socialists feel convinced, as Eduard Bernstein declared at Stuttgart, that their "world-parliaments are becoming increasingly the arbiters of the casting vote," the pressure of practical considerations would act in the direction of a wise self-restraint. On the other hand, if the German Social Democrats, as frankly avowed by Bebel, have learned from this year's Reichstag elections that the spirit of nationality cannot be antagonized without serious consequences, that, too, would be a powerful argument for moderation. Evidently, the Socialists are discovering that like every other party or creed they must take public feeling seriously into account.

Of the questions which the Stuttgart Congress took under consideration, the four most important were anti-militarism, colonization, freedom of emigration and immigration, and the policy that should govern the relations between Socialists as a political party and the labor unions. The question of anti-militarism was of great importance to the French Socialists, whose ranks it has badly disorganized. Hervéism, as the movement is called in France after its most uncompromising exponent, teaches that it is the duty of the working class to make war impossible by all means in their power—refusal to serve in the army, insubordination, armed strike, and, in the case of the actual declaration of hostilities, by armed insurrection. The anti-militarist agitation has placed the French Socialist leaders in Parliament in an extremely difficult position. M. Jaurès has dared neither to break with Hervé because of the latter's powerful following, nor, for obvious reasons, openly to embrace his views. His attempts at compromise have not

been conspicuously successful, and the congress of French Socialists which met several weeks ago at Nancy adopted a resolution which is conceded to have been in part at least a triumph for the anti-militarists. "I see," a French paper makes an honest citizen say, "that Jaurès has rejected Hervé's views." "Yes," replied his neighbor, "with open arms."

Hervéism, at Stuttgart, was bitterly assailed by the German and English Socialists. To the latter it was, possibly, more or less an academic question, but to the Germans the matter was vital. If we should adopt the anti-militarist propaganda, Bebel declared in substance, our three million Socialist votes would disappear. In other words, close as the Socialist creed may be to the heart of the average German Social-Democrat, it cannot as yet venture to disregard such elementary sentiments as national and local patriotism. Hervé, with the terrible logic of the fanatic, demanded of Bebel what the German Social-Democrats would do if war was declared between Germany and France, and the French Socialists should rise in insurrection. Bebel did not reply. But when Hervé asked again, "For whom shall we, then, be fighting?" the Belgian leader, Vandervelde, responded, "For the King of Prussia!" The Congress thought so, too. It passed a resolution calling upon Socialists to exert their influence to prevent war, but—significantly—if war did exist, to labor for the re-establishment of peace; a declaration which any middle-class congress might have adopted.

The English Independent Labor party had submitted to the International Socialist Bureau an amendment abolishing the requirement that trade unions invited to participate in the international congresses must be "formally based on the principle of class struggle." The bureau recommended that the amendment be rejected. The Congress adopted a resolution declaring for the establishment of close relations between the various national Socialist parties and the labor unions. The latter, it went on to say, could not, unless imbued with the Socialist spirit, take effective part in the regeneration of the working class. This may be called a moderate declaration because it is capable of being variously interpreted. In Germany, where the Socialist party and the labor unions work hand in hand and are equally Marxian in their tendencies, it can work no particular change. In Great Britain, where the trade unions are "imbued with the Socialist spirit" without being quite prepared to base themselves "formally on the principle of class-struggle," the resolution does not compel them to a formal pronouncement, comprehensiveness, and not rigid orthodoxy, is the keynote of a policy that hopes, as M. Vandervelde declared, to conquer the

world as primitive Christianity did.

In the matter of emigration and immigration, the Australian and American delegates argued for a policy of restriction. Socialists though they were, they could not escape the limitations of their environment, which in Australia calls aloud for an "all-white" Australia and in San Francisco professes fear of a yellow peril. The Congress declared against the importation of foreign laborers "as strike-breakers," a formula which the restrictionists could accept with perfect good grace on the principle that exclusion by any other name is just as sweet.

Only on the question of colonization did the radicals carry the Congress. Colonialism was condemned *in toto*, but only by a bare majority of nineteen, and after a commission had reported in favor of a moderate declaration on the subject. Both sides agreed that colonial expansion brought no direct benefit to the working class, which had to bear the cost of foreign adventure in money and lives. But whereas the minority maintained that external growth on the part of a nation was, after all, in line with the general course of history, their opponents successfully upheld the thesis that civilized society must first establish justice at home before it set out to teach justice to the heathen.

REAL UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

A notable conference was held at Oxford last month, attended by delegates from two hundred working-men's organizations, to discuss means of bringing the university into closer relations with the laboring classes. These, as the Bishop of Birmingham pointed out, are now the governing classes in Great Britain—a truth strongly emphasized by the huge Liberal majority in Parliament, and by the radical measures, such as old-age pensions, urged by the present Government. Within two generations the extensions of the suffrage have slowly but surely transferred the power from the aristocracy and the upper middle class to the millions of wage-earners in the big manufacturing cities. In the meantime Oxford and Cambridge, true to their tradition as the home of lost causes and forsaken beliefs, have continued to educate the youth of the nobility and the well-to-do. This aloofness of the universities from the masses of the people has recalled Lord Sherbrooke's exhortation, "Educate your masters"; and the London *Spectator* anxiously asks:

Now that the centre of power is moved, are Oxford and Cambridge prepared to meet the new state of things as they met the old? Are they prepared to render the same service to the governing class of the present that they so long rendered to the governing class of the past? Or, rather, since it would be idle to expect them to

make bricks without straw, are they willing to make the changes in their machinery which are indispensable if workingmen are to become students and to take degrees?

To turn from England to America—the problem of our universities is obviously far different. In all our States the public schools, primary and secondary, furnish to all comers a free preparation for college. Throughout the West the State universities offer the higher instruction also free, or for a merely nominal fee. In the East the privately endowed colleges grant many scholarships to promising boys and girls; so that most of these institutions can boast, as Harvard does, that no youth of intelligence, ambition, and character need stay away because he lacks money. Thus it is that our colleges are remarkably democratic. Even the richest and most fashionable of them enroll many children of poor parents; and the son of an unskilled laborer may, if he have brains and pluck, rise without great difficulty to one of the learned professions. But the very fact that a college education is within such close reach, that there is no wide gap between gown and town, has perhaps made our college authorities too easily contented with existing conditions. In spite of all, then, we may well consider this English movement and seriously put the question whether we in America have really adapted the machinery of our universities to the needs of the community and are utilizing it to the full.

We would not for a moment suggest that a college education is the thing for everybody. On the contrary we are persuaded that our colleges, with misdirected kindness, sometimes make it too easy for stupid or lazy boys and girls, who are incapable of profiting by advanced study, to waste four years. We should like to see more rigid standards maintained, so that the energy of teachers and the income from endowments shall not be squandered on incapacity or idleness, whether among rich or poor. Indeed, we believe that in most high schools also, too much tenderness is shown to dullards who are unable to enjoy the advantages so generously held out to them. But granting all this, we urge that every possible opportunity be afforded the ambitious and the capable: for here, as in England, we must heed Lord Sherbrooke's warning to educate our masters.

To this end it is that we have so generally established night schools for the many boys and girls who are forced to become wage-earners and work by day before they have acquired the education they may reasonably desire. The night high school—comparatively speaking an innovation—is the logical sequel of the night grammar school. The utility of this night high school is already fully

demonstrated; no important city which has once established it would think of abandoning it. Thus far, however, our colleges and universities have not taken the next step beyond the high school, but have confined their evening instruction chiefly to the so-called extension lectures. These lectures are often excellent in their way; they may be both informing and stimulating. But, as Sir Robert Morant said at the Oxford conference, what is wanted "is not mere lectures, but real solid work in small adult classes with teachers who know how to teach." In this utterance he only echoed no less an authority than Cardinal Newman, who in his "Idea of a University" denounced the common delusion that "acquaintance with the learned names of things and persons, and attendance on eloquent lectures, . . . and the sight of the experiments of a platform and the specimens of a museum"—that all this is intellectual discipline. In fine, extension lectures, however entertaining, are no substitute for the drill of hard study.

There is, we admit, ground for the objection that a college education in the best sense of the term, can hardly be had without those years of residence, of contact with fellow-students and teachers, of reading in the library, of play, of sauntering, and of reflection, of the almost indefinable influences which—as we grow older—seem to us so precious a part of our irrevocable youth. Yet because these pleasanter paths to the summits of learning are in the nature of the case barred to the man who toils in the shop by day and studies by night, that is no valid reason why the more laborious ways should also be shut. Hundreds of students—say at Harvard and Columbia—who are denied the joys of residence and sauntering, manage to secure an adequate education. It would therefore seem eminently fitting for universities in large cities to give well-organized night courses leading to a degree. Such courses would not fail to attract eager pupils. The experiment has, indeed, already been tried in several places; but most of the night instruction has thus far been tentative and rather unsystematic. The difficulties of the enterprise are obvious; though existing facilities in libraries, laboratories, and lecture-rooms might not require duplication, much money might be needed for a larger corps of teachers, for a night shift as well as a day shift. Here, then, is a practically untrodden field for philanthropist as well as educator. An endowment for the maintenance of a night college in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, or Chicago would not be thrown away, and it might achieve results of incalculable beneficence.

THE SECLUSION OF AUTHORS.

Between the traditional fate of the prophet and that of our average successful novelist there is one distinction to be drawn. The prophet carries on his work in his natal valley, and is refused honor there, while the author of a best seller enjoys honor and profit in the country of his birth, but writes most of his fiction abroad. The kinsmen of Virgil and Dante are growing accustomed to have their villas and palaces taken possession of, not only by iron, oil, and wheat kings from across the seas, but by the prosperous young story-tellers of *oltremare* who minister to the taste of the youngest of barbarian nations. The ordinary practising author or journalist of Italy, with his income approximating half the annual wages of his Calabrian compatriot digging ditches in the highways of New York, must rub his eyes and shake his head to see our Tarkingtons and our R. H. Davises flashing across their old Roman roads in expensive motor cars that Mæcenæ, for all his good will, could scarcely have afforded to bestow on Q. H. Flaccus, his friend and client. John Smith, author of "Helen of Transcaspia," has a palace not so very far from where Soracte stands tall and white with snow; only Thaliarchus, instead of generously replenishing the wood fire, probably turns on the steam, when it grows too cold.

But in reality it is not ostentation that drives our writers abroad to dwell in marble halls, but quite the opposite desire for retirement. Marion Crawford, it would appear, escaping from crowds of American admirers who persist in invading his palace at Sorrento, has been compelled to flee for refuge into remote Calabria. There, in a deserted tower, in the very heart of the region made famous by the deeds of the dread bandit Musolino, he can find the seclusion so seemingly essential to his work. It is rather ominous, of course, that the reporter whom no one escapeth should have followed the novelist into his lonely tower, but that was possibly due to the relentless exigencies of the publishers' side of the business. In the same manner, Jack London, plunging independently into the mystery and charm of the South Seas, is compelled to get into touch now and then with a cable station and to let an anxious world know about his latest fight with Chinese pirates and copra raiders. That in a way is the tragedy that ever besets the prominent writer in search of seclusion. Whether he crosses the ocean or endeavors to lose himself in the forests where rolls the Oregon, whether he avails himself of the railway or motor car or canoe, Horace's Black Care, in the form of the press agent, squats always behind him on the crupper.

The question arises, then, Why does

the wielder of the pen go away at all? Why does he with blind faith strive, summer after summer, to disappear from the public eye, only to find himself dragged back within the range of that mighty organ by cable, telephone, or wireless? Here a distinction is in order. Marion Crawford and Jack London are really imperfect examples of the type, because their travels are largely undertaken in the legitimate pursuit of exotic copy. But why does Mr. Jones conceal himself in the Maine woods to write his novel, "The Earners," dealing with the life of employees in a New Jersey glass-factory? Why does Miss Robinson go to Alaska to complete the "Chronicles of Samantha," the scene of which is laid near Dedham, Mass.? Why does Henry Wadsworth Taylor leave Pittsburgh for the Adirondacks to work on his long-awaited story, "Thou Shalt Not," treating of the divorce problem? It cannot be just the desire to be alone with one's work that sends the literary craftsman into exile or back to Nature, since it is demonstrable that many an apartment in New York is more safe against unwelcome intrusion than a bungalow by the sea. Whoever invented the tradition that "Nature" is a friend to hard work, is responsible for much wasted effort. Nature is never so quiet as the four walls of a room are with the windows closed. Nature is always fidgeting, gossiping, chirping, buzzing, and moaning, chafing her leaves against each other, making her waves boom against the rocks. It is a question whether any really great books have been written close to her heart.

There is, besides, a respectable tradition in favor of pursuing one's literary labors in a crowd. The great Elizabethan drama was almost born and nurtured in the taverns where Marlowe and Greene and Nash caroused and fought and scaled the heights of poesy. And if the greatest of them all did not do his best work at the tavern, he probably did in the greenroom of the theatre, with the actor folk crowding about him and the mob in the pit yelling for the show to begin. The age of Charles, of Anne, and of the Georges did not differ in this respect from the age of Elizabeth, except that the coffee-house replaced the tavern. Villon did not write in cloistered chambers. Rabelais did not shrink from contact with the world; their descendants of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries thought out their masterpieces amidst the rapid-fire conversation of the salon, and their descendants of the nineteenth century still show a remarkable fondness for the drawing-room, the foyer, the coulisses, and the cafés. So there is ample authority for maintaining that crowds and noise are not inimical to literature.

Not that there is lack of good testimony on the other side. To take two

of the very greatest contemporary figures, Ibsen lived away from Norway, his constant subject, during practically all of his productive life, and Turgeneff recreated Russia for its own people and for the outside world while a resident of Paris and the German watering-places. A strong case could be made out for the great advantage which a fair degree of remoteness from a subject may confer in the way of emphasizing outline and correcting perspective; and from that point of view our writers are quite justified in exiling themselves from the United States or from New York in order that they may understand and depict these States or New York the better. If only we could be sure that seeing a particular phase of life clearly and completely depended on distance away from it, it would be rather profitable than otherwise to have Mr. Davis write his books in the Congo, or Robert W. Chambers take his stand in Mars.

RICHARD MANSFIELD.

Richard Mansfield was unquestionably the most successful American actor-manager of his time. He had the good fortune to come to the front at a period when the old order of things theatrical was changing into the new and the production of first-class actors had been stopped by the gradual development of the star system. Mansfield started from small beginnings; but he was furnished by nature with artistic instincts and a resolute temper, and, moreover, had powerful financial influences back of him. His mother was Madame Rudersdorf, a great singer in her day, and it was to her that he owed the musical ability and the fine singing voice that led him naturally to seek first a career in the field of light opera.

His first great success in America was in "A Parisian Romance." The part of Baron Chevrial, which he played repeatedly for the rest of his life, he first essayed in the Union Square Theatre, under the management of A. M. Palmer, in January, 1883. Up to the evening of the first performance he was practically unknown; on the following morning he was on the road to fame and fortune. All the theatrical world was talking of the hit he had made. There can be no doubt that he turned a doubtful or very moderate success into a triumph. His make-up of the old Parisian profligate was a magnificent bit of artistry. It was difficult to credit that behind that wrinkled, pallid, leering, cynical, and hardened visage lay the rosy blooms and rounded contours of youth. Nor did the audience know that much of the Baron's manner was the manner of the actor. But the simulation of age was excellent, and the sudden death stroke interrupting the ghastly gayety of the ancient reprobate was given with a remorseless realism worthy of Novelli himself. The

effect was electrical. The audience broke out into enthusiastic cheers, and Richard Mansfield's fortune was made.

We cannot trace here in detail the career which followed. Mr. Mansfield, although an intelligent, original, attractive, and popular performer, was not, except in a rather narrow range of eccentric parts, a great or even a remarkable actor. His intense egoism rendered him impatient of all reproof or instruction, and after his first triumph as Chevrial it seems never to have occurred to him that there could be anything further for him to learn in the way of acting. As a natural consequence, he soon became the victim of confirmed mannerisms and never, apparently, exerted himself in the least to veil his own individual personality beneath that of an assumed character. No matter what part he was playing, in voice, gesture, carriage, and progression, he was always Richard Mansfield, one and unmistakable. It is only fair to add that in the tricks of stage disguise he was an adept, and it was only when he spoke or moved that his identity was betrayed.

Magnificent as was his voice, his lack of elocutionary skill made him ineffective in the rendering of verse. In Shakespeare the faults of his delivery were peculiarly fatal. But he possessed in a remarkable degree that magnetic or sympathetic quality which holds an audience in thrall and renders it oblivious to technical defects or mere faultiness of impersonation. In his Richard, apart from its vigor and intensity, there was scarcely a redeeming point. T. P. Cooke himself could scarcely have expressed it in terms of lower melodrama, yet his performance of the part delighted the crowd and found favor even with more judicious observers. It is true that, into characters with which he was temperamentally affiliated he occasionally threw striking and vital expression. But it was only in a limited range of eccentric character that he really excelled.

It was as an actor-manager rather than as an actor that he made himself famous. He did, indeed, make terms with the Theatrical Trust at a time when his opposition to it might have been of inestimable benefit to the American stage, and he adopted the star system in all its viciousness—except in its interminable runs—but he escaped from the hopeless groove in which most managers are caught, cut out a path for himself, and opened up to his patrons new and old fields of drama which otherwise they could never have entered. It cannot be asserted that his productions were all of equal interest or value, but most of them were distinguished by some solid qualification. A repertory that included works of Shakespeare, Molière, Hugo, Ibsen, Rostand, and Bernard Shaw was undeniably catholic. Mr. Mansfield offered much that was inspiring, little that was altogether trivial,

nothing, so far as present memory serves, that was altogether base. Of few managers could so much be said. If he was not always a great artist, he sought at any rate the guidance of artistic instinct. That his death should seem to leave such a void is perhaps less a tribute to his greatness than a witness to the decline among us of the actor's art.

OUR CLASSICAL BELT.

When Secretary Wilson, the other day, ordered the Latin or quasi-Latin mottoes "Fructus," "Cereales," "Forestes," and "Flores" erased from the shields before the new Agricultural Department building, and their places filled by plain English, he probably did not realize how far he was falling in with a prevalent fashion. Doubtless, classical scholarship is achieving great results in this country; more of us than ever before are studying Greek and Latin. Yet at the same time the dead languages are losing even the last of their ceremonial uses. Banished from the college diploma and the legal document, they found, or at least Latin had found, a last refuge in the sculptured tablet, and now this is to be taken away.

The classical name in this country to-day is, in fact, very often a souvenir of one of the most curious periods in this country's history, the period when classicism of a sort pervaded the new country as French influence had still earlier, and was accepted with the same ingenuous enthusiasm. It is a period which has but small place in our literature. The late H. C. Bunner, however, was one who treated it with a light and sympathetic touch. An old white house, with tumble-down Greek portico, in one of his tales, "seemed to protest against modern contempt as though it said:

I have had my day. I was built when people thought this sort of thing was the right sort of thing; when we had our own little pseudo-classic renaissance in America. I lie between the towns of Aristotle and Sabine Farms. I am a gentleman's residence, and my name is Montevista. I was built by a prominent citizen. You need not laugh through your lattices, you smug new Queen Anne cottage, down there in the valley! What will become of you when the falsehood is found out of your imitation bricks, and your tiled roof of shingles, and your stained glass that is only a sheet of transparent paper pasted on a pane? You are a young sham; I am an old sham. Have some respect for age.

That pseudo-classic renaissance in America which belonged to no particular locality nevertheless left its memorials distributed in a singular way. A population which is growing in a certain direction creates as it grows geographical zones which correspond like rock strata to the period of time within which they were developed. And so the classical obsession left behind it, like

fossils, the towns that it had named. They are not scattered at random through the country, but conform to a regular law. There are 27 cities and towns named Troy in the United States, 19 named Athens, 17 Uticas, 16 Alexandrias, 15 Romes, and 12 Carthages, not to speak of 7 Atticas and 7 Syracuses. The post-office, if nothing else, sees to it that there are no duplications within the same State. In fact, only two States, Indiana and our own New York, contain towns bearing all eight of the classical names just referred to. Ohio and Missouri contain seven each. These States are widely separated, yet if we mark off on the map all the States which have used more than half of the town names in question, they are no longer segregated, but form a compact belt or zone. A straight line drawn from Albany to Richfield, Kan., roughly measures its greatest length, and a similar line from Copper Harbor, Mich., to Memphis, Tenn., its greatest breadth. It includes Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Tennessee, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Kansas.

Around this belt is a sort of fringe of States which have dabbled in the classical dictionary. Mississippi, Iowa, and Nebraska are almost entitled to inclusion. But the oldest States and the newest alike had no part or but small part in that enthusiasm. Six of the thirteen original States, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Maryland, and Virginia, do not embrace a single Carthage or Rome or Athens or Attica or Troy or Utica or Syracuse or Alexandria. In the far West, likewise, there are eight States and Territories without so much as a freckle of the glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome. The fashion ended as abruptly as it began.

The study of place and personal names has been rather on the increase. Clues to the deepest philological, archaeological, and historical mysteries are found by learned men in the homeliest bits of nomenclature. In America we borrowed our names and borrowed them frankly. Never perhaps was there in the world a heavier draft on the visible supply of any commodity. But for the very reason that the choice of names by our pioneers was always a conscious process, it has a special interest of its own. There are many obscure factors. Why, for example, did the foreign immigrants in some sections name their towns after places in the old country, and in others take the most undistinguished titles in preference because of a supposedly superior local application? Does the distribution of Indian names on the map bear any relation to the friendly or hostile attitude between Indians and whites at the particular times when settlements were made? Did the Indian wars possibly make Indian names unpopular, as we know the revolution did such titles as

King Street, which was here changed to Liberty Street? What of the habit of using the names of public men in their own lifetimes for towns and streets and squares? What is the connection of our Biblical designations with the "Great Awakening"? There is quite as much to be gleaned from this field as from some of the others over which candidates for the doctorate are toiling.

ROMAN ITALY IN THE NORTH.—VERONA.—III.

Passing eastward from Aosta and Ivrea across the base of the Italian lakes, around and above which were the nests of many unsubdued tribes in early Augustan times, we reach the opening of the next great Alpine pass at Verona.

The Verona of the Middle Ages strikes so dominant a note with its S. Zeno, S. Fermo, and the Cathedral, with its S. Anastasia, its castle and tombs of the Scaligers, that it takes some time to realize not only how much of the Roman period still survives, but how vividly the ruins tell the story of a really great and rich city of the Augustan age such as Strabo and Tacitus lead us to infer. The immense amphitheatre—one of the half-dozen largest and best preserved—the recently excavated theatre, the two city gates called Porta dei Borsari and Arco dei Leoni, the piers of the *ponte di pietra*, the numerous sculptures and inscriptions in the two museums, form a rather imposing if somewhat disconnected total. If Roman Verona has hardly been taken at its real value, it is possibly because its purpose and history in the light of its monuments have been misinterpreted. Its amphitheatre is early, yet has been ascribed to Diocletian (about 290); and its two city gates are assigned to Gallienus on account of his restoration—inscription of 265 A. D. I propose a far earlier date for the gates, the first half of the reign of Augustus, and propose also to resuscitate a superb "triumphal," or colony, arch of the city, which, though torn down, still lies, *dissecta membra*, under the arcades of the amphitheatre. Were this the place, I could revive, from drawings of the sixteenth century, several other monumental arches and gateways which must have placed Verona almost immediately after Rome among Italian cities in the number of its monuments of this class.

Mommsen elects to follow Pliny, who calls Verona an *oppidum* or town, rather than the inscription of the Porta dei Borsari, accepted by Borghesi, which proclaims Verona a colony as early as the time of Augustus. It seems to me that there are three reasons for believing Verona to have been made a colony by Augustus: (1) The inscription of Gallienus calls it so: "Colonia Augusta Verona"; (2) the gateway on which this inscription stands has all the characteristics in plan and style of the Augustan city gates, which are unknown after him; (3) the increased importance of Verona as part of Augustus's plan in northern Italy would necessarily make it a colony; and the intimate connection of the city at that time with Drusus confirms this view.

Travellers coming from the Tyrol through the Brenner Pass are always, as they

emerge into the plain, impressed with the strength and picturesqueness of Verona's situation. For a low-lying city its impregnability is remarkable. It nestles where the river Adige, as it broadens out, takes a narrow double curve; the city is contained almost entirely in the lower arm of the S which surrounds it on three sides, while the fourth is protected by the canal of the "Adigetto," which cuts across the neck. What makes the arrangement more remarkable is that across the river, where the original settlement evidently stood, is quite a hill which served as acropolis for the Augustan colony and was connected with it by a heavy stone bridge.

At Verona the commercial east and west highway intersected the road up the Brenner Pass, the shortest and best means of communication between the valley of the Po and the region of the Danube and southern Germany. About sixty miles from Verona up the Brenner road lies Trent, the ancient Tridentum, which had been founded by the Rhaeti, occupied later by the Cenomanni, but being the first city site of importance on the Italian side of the pass, was seen by Augustus to be necessary to his plans. His troops occupied it in or before 24 B. C., and he proceeded to make it the advanced point for the concentration of troops and stores in preparation for the campaign of Drusus in 16 and 15 B. C., when the Alps were crossed and the provinces of Rhaetia and Vindelicia added to the Empire. In this way the neighboring Alps received the name of Tridentine Alps. Here the Brenner road was joined by the Via Claudia Augusta, coming direct from Altinum in Venetia.

Trent, therefore, at the top, and Verona at the bottom of the military road, formed a third duet similar to Aosta-Ivrea and Susa-Turin. Does not this fact give some indication of the time when Verona became a colony? It is known that in late Republican and Augustan times the granting of colonial rights was coincident with the building of walls; and it is hardly conceivable that Verona should have been on a different footing from Turin. Her foundation undoubtedly came a few years later. The name, Colonia Augusta Verona, shows it was after 27 B. C. The date of the occupation of Tridentum, 24 B. C., may be approximately that of the colonization of Verona itself. The Rhaeti and the Gauls seem to have occupied the Acropolis. The Romans first came here in 89 B. C., and either then or under Augustus established themselves on the level site across the river where the bulk of the Augustan city arose. It could not, on account of having its outlines determined by the curves of the river and the preëxisting acropolis, take on the exact rectilinear form of Turin and Aosta. Perhaps, as in a number of other cases, there existed here side by side a preëxisting civil municipal town and a super-added military colony. This would explain the fact that Pliny calls Verona a *municipium*, and the Borsari inscription and Tacitus a colony.

Verona was far larger than Turin or Aosta. Its amphitheatre had 25,000 seats. It stood to reason, therefore, that its strip of clear sacred ground outside and encircling the walls, called the *pomerium*, would be wider than at Aosta, to make the defence the surer and the warning of an attack the quicker. When I was in Verona

this time I decided to put to the test here my theory in regard to colony arches: that they were built whenever an Augustan colony was founded; that they stood outside the walls; that they were placed on the outer *pomerium* line, across the main highway, outside the principal city gate. I placed myself, therefore, at the principal gate of Augustan Verona, the Porta dei Borsari, and paced off the distance beyond it on the line of the old Roman road toward Rome, until I should reach the outer *pomerium* line, wondering if at this hypothetical point I might not find some trace, past or present, of the existence of a colony arch. Bearing in mind the 366 metres of Aosta, and supposing that the greater size of Verona implied a correspondingly larger *pomerium* strip, I reckoned the distance here should be between 500 and 600 metres. My delight may be imagined when, at a distance of about 550 metres, I found a curious thing. Stretched across the highway (Corso Cavour) was the outline of a Roman arch marked in the pavement by white cobble-stones edged with black. Here stood until 1805 what was called the Arch of the Gavii, an exquisite work of Augustan art. I had found that Verona had a colony arch, and I had found where the colony arch stood, on the outer *pomerium* line. But this was not all. Of course, in preparing for my book on Roman Triumphal and Memorial Arches I had listed this destroyed arch at Verona. I knew that it had been famous for its beauty, had been drawn and copied by Renaissance architects, and had been barbarously torn down by the French soldiery while they occupied Verona in 1805. I had supposed that, barring a few fragments, the arch was but a memory, to be reconstructed perhaps from these Renaissance drawings. But when I went to the amphitheatre to look up the supposed "few fragments," what was my surprise to find many of its dark vaulted passages filled with the materials of the arch. Slowly I pieced its Odyssey. Hardly had it been torn down in 1805 when the French left the city and an Austrian archduke offered to pay half the cost of rebuilding the arch; but the Veronese, impoverished by the terrible reprisals for their rising of 1798, were unable to furnish the rest and unable to agree as to the site, so all the *dissecta membra* were carted, none too gently, to the amphitheatre, and there they have remained, unknown to archaeologists. The Veronese contented themselves by marking with those black and white cobbles the plan of the arch on the original site.

I know that the few specialists who have heard of this arch or read its inscriptions in the Latin Corpus will object that this is a private family arch because on it are the names of members of the Gavii family whose statues stood on the arch and in its niches. But this is an objection easily overcome. When Caesar and Augustus founded military colonies of veterans, the new establishment was often put under the guidance of a military leader and his family, which was henceforth associated with the fortunes of the city. Thus the Julii and their colony arch at St. Remy, the Campani and theirs at Aix-les-Bains, the Sergii and theirs at Pola in Istria. Most convincing of all is the arch of the Sergii at Pola, where we find the names of the various members of the family of the man

selected as leader of the colony by Augustus, Sergius, who had been tribune of the Twenty-ninth Legion, disbanded after the battle of Actium. This exact dating of the beautiful colony arch at Pola I am also giving to the *Nation* for the first time. Needless to say that, later in the reign of Augustus, when the legal ritual in connection with public monuments became carefully regulated and all arches were dedicated to the Emperor, it would have been impossible to give to local authorities and heroes such a prominent place on arches. I found some superb drawings of the Arch of the Gavii by the famous Renaissance architect Palladio in the Public Library at Verona: with their help and the financial assistance of a lover of art like J. Pierpont Morgan it would be easy to rebuild and restore what is certainly the most beautiful of all the Augustan arches in Italy. I will even mention, as a possibility which I am investigating, that the arch may be a remnant of the pre-Augustan colony, and if so the earliest known arch in the Roman world.

Hardly second in interest is the principal gate of the Augustan city, the much-misunderstood Porta dei Borsari. What we now see is a gate with two wide twin openings framed by engaged columns supporting architraves and gables, and surmounted by two stories of arched galleries. It would seem to take but a very slight knowledge of art to see clearly that we have two very different periods and styles, and that the lower arcades are early and pure, while the galleries are late and debased; the former a work of Augustus, the latter of Gallienus. It is curious that this elementary fact has not been generally recognized. The surface of the Augustan frieze was cut down and a new surface irregularly and crudely made to receive the restoration inscription of Gallienus, stating that the walls of Verona were built between April 3 and December 4 of the year 265 by order of the Emperor Gallienus. This statement is guilty of evident exaggeration. It would have been quite impossible to surround the entire city with walls and gates in these few months. We know, besides, from Tacitus, that in the struggle before the advent of Vespasian, two centuries earlier in 69 A. D., the strongly fortified Verona was made the military centre of the German and Gallic army. What Gallienus did was merely a work of restoration of the neglected fortifications. At the Porta dei Borsari he substituted a two-storied gallery for the Augustan superstructure and, removing the inscription of Augustus, substituted his own, destroying even part of the mouldings of the early frieze.

If any further confirmation were required of the early date of the primitive gate, it has been supplied by some recent excavations, from which I am here drawing for the first time the evident conclusions. These excavations have shown that the present thin screen-like structure, usually thought to be merely a passageway, and to be the whole of the gate, was but the forefront of a massive gateway, with central court and rear facade, more artistic than but quite similar in scheme to the other early Augustan military gates at Turin, Aosta, Nîmes, and Salona. Verona not being a purely military and utilitarian foundation, but a

city of wealth and size, it was natural that the gates as well as the Colony Arch should be of greater artistic beauty. Comparing now, all these various Augustan gateways, we find a varied galaxy, differing not only in materials and architectural style, but in the number of arcades: here there are two, at Aosta and Salona there are three, at Nîmes and Turin four.

Of another Augustan gate, the Arco dei Leoni, less remains, but it is less marred by later restoration, and it originally had the same plan, which has been traced and partly uncovered under the modern street. It may have been the Porta Principalis Sinistra. There were, as I have said, other early city arches and gates: across the river, the so-called Janus arch, which, perhaps, belonged to the pre-Augustan city; the so-called Arch of Jupiter Ammon, that stood across the intersection of the two thoroughfares in the centre of the city; the early gate called the Arch of Valerius; and that near the Church of S. Tommaso. From a study of these monuments it is possible to reconstruct in part the plan of Roman Verona, and to see how, even at present, the city continues to follow the lines of the Roman streets, and that it contains unsuspected treasures of early Roman art.

At some time between c. 25 and 20 B. C. Verona was therefore recolonized and rebuilt by Augustus and served as base of supplies for Drusus in his great campaigns in the north, beyond the Alps, in connection with Tridentum. Still further east we reach the ultimate military route in Italy, that starting from Aquileia at the head of the Adriatic, and leading northward past the second member of this fourth Augustan duet, Emona on the upper Save, across the Julian Alps to Pannonia: this was the great military artery of communication with the Danube, and so an integral unit in the scheme of Augustan conquest. But thus far no architectural remains of his have come to light in either, and, in turn to other cities still further eastward in Istria and Dalmatia for the abundant traces of the great work which Augustus planned and carried out in this region as a sacred inheritance from Julius Caesar even before he had worked out the complicated scheme in northern Italy which we have been studying. A. L. FROTHINGHAM.

Princeton, N. J.

A NEW MANUSCRIPT OF POE'S.

A recent writer on Poe, after quoting a statement from the late R. H. Stoddard to the effect that "a new and well authenticated poem" by him, it "will never be possible at this date to find," says:

The discovery of a new Shakespearian play might be more interesting to more people, but in America, and in France, where Poe's influence has distinctly touched two groups of authors belonging to two generations, a genuine Poe discovery would, with large numbers, take precedence.

Such a "genuine Poe discovery" has been made. One of his manuscripts, not used, apparently, by any American editor, and in large part unpublished, has come to light, and has been acquired by S. H. Wake-man.

In the *Southern Literary Messenger*, December, 1835, Poe, who was then the editor, printed some extracts from a play un-

der the title "Scenes from an Unpublished Drama"; and further extracts, under the same title, appeared in January, 1836. In 1845, when he collected his verse in the volume, "The Raven and Other Poems," these extracts, rearranged and slightly altered, were reprinted as "Scenes from Politian; an Unpublished Drama." The manuscript of this drama (Poe's only play) has recently come to light. It once belonged to John H. Ingram, the English editor of Poe's works, though it passed from his hands many years ago. It is not complete, but the twenty folio pages contain nearly six hundred and fifty lines which, so far as we know, have never been printed. At the top of the first page is the heading:

Politian—a Tragedy
Scene—Rome in the Century.

The manuscript ends in the third scene of Act IV, with Politian alone in the Coliseum at night. One leaf, at least, perhaps the whole Fifth Act, is lacking. The manuscript, in Poe's autograph, is generally clean, with few alterations. There are however, occasional interlineations, and some lines have been marked out. In one place a piece of paper, about one-third of a page, has been pasted down. By separating these two sheets, the earlier draft underneath would become legible. At the head of the first extract printed in the *Southern Literary Messenger*, Poe has written, in pencil: "Scenes from Politian. An Unpublished Tragedy by Edgar A. Poe. Act 2—Scene 3," showing apparently that this was the manuscript used by printer for the selections. A comparison of the published portion of the manuscript with the printed text shows, however, some variations.

Additional interest is lent to the manuscript by the fact that Poe accused Longfellow of imitating this play. In the *Broadway Journal*, March 29, 1845, Poe pointed out similarities between Longfellow's "The Spanish Student" and his own "Scene from Politian, an Unpublished Tragedy," found in the *Southern Literary Messenger*. After printing extracts from the two plays, he concludes:

The coincidences here are too markedly peculiar to be gainsaid. The sitting at the table with books, etc., the flowers on the one hand, and the garden on the other, the presence of the pert maid, the reading aloud from the book, the pausing and commenting, the plaintiveness of what is read, in accordance with the sorrow of the reader, the abstraction, the frequent calling of the maid by name, the refusal of the maid to answer, the jewels, the "begone," the unseen entrance of a third person from behind, and the drawing of the dagger, are points sufficiently noticeable to establish at least the imitation beyond all doubt.

Several important Poe manuscripts have been sold at auction in recent years. The original manuscript of "The Bells," which formerly belonged to William Nelson of Paterson, and was included with other material in the Harold Pierce sale in 1903, brought \$2,100. It was written on sheets of blue paper, pasted end to end. Spread out it formed a continuous sheet 37½ inches long. Hardly less interesting is the manuscript of "Ulalume," five sheets of quarto paper pasted end to end, which brought \$1,000 in the McKee sale, February, 1905. In March, 1905, a considerable portion of an early draft of "Tamerlane" was sold with Bishop Hurst's library, bringing \$801.

This was written on both sides of five quarto leaves, the first page numbered 9, and the last 20. This manuscript, which differs from the printed text, is certainly an earlier version than the one printed in that excessively rare little book published by Calvin F. S. Thomas, Boston, 1827. In the Hurst manuscript there are 157 lines, while the corresponding portion of the book contains some 75 additional lines, added during revision. There are also many variations between the manuscript and the printed text. The manuscript of the prose tale, "The System of Dr. Tarr and Professor Fether," at Anderson's in March, 1904, brought \$505. This was written on small 12mo sheets pasted together; when unrolled it formed a strip about twenty feet long. Another manuscript of similar character, "A Tale of the Ragged Mountain," forming a strip about fifteen feet long, brought \$230 in the George T. Maxwell sale, 1895. These two are perhaps the best specimens extant of Poe's curious rolled manuscripts.

Correspondence.

VIRGIL OR VERGIL?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was recently looking through the *Miscellanea* of Angelo Poliziano (sometimes called Politian) in an attractive edition of his works published in 1498, four years after his death, by Aldus Manutius. Of the hundred chapters, the majority deal with points of literary or historical criticism and interpretation, which long ago ceased to be discussed; one, however, contains an argument more akin to the philological controversies of later times. This chapter, which Virgilian scholars even now sometimes refer to, is entitled "Quo argumento dicendum Vergilius, non Virgilius," and presents the reasons why Poliziano preferred the former spelling of the name.

He remarks that while the current spelling was *Virgilius*, the learned were disposed to favor *Vergilius*. He then offers two kinds of evidence to support the spelling *Vergilius*, that of inscriptions and that of the manuscripts. Under the latter head he cites not merely the well-known Vatican manuscript of Virgil written in capitals (R), but also codices of the *Pandects*, of Donatus, of Augustine's "De Civitate Dei," of Columella, and of Seneca.

The contention of the Italian humanist in favor of *Vergilius* as the classical Latin form has been abundantly sustained by the extensive and painstaking study of the manuscripts and inscriptions since his time. Ritschl (*Opusc. philol.*, vol. II, p. 779), summed up the case by saying that this spelling is attested both by the concurrent testimony of the older manuscripts of the poet and by the consistent use of the name in inscriptions as *Vergilius* from the second century before Christ until the fourth century of our era. By the sixth century *Vergilius* had come into vogue, for reasons which it would not be pertinent to our present inquiry to analyze; and when the vernacular languages of modern Europe began to be reduced to writing the late Latin form, *Virgilius*, was commonly used; hence, forms of the name in Italian,

Spanish, French, German, and English came to have *i* as the vowel of the first syllable.

From other sources we know that Poliziano was by no means the only scholar of his age who broke with tradition, and, returning to the classical form *Vergilius*, used this in his writings. The author of "De Inventoribus Rerum" and the "Anglica Historia," Polydorus Vergilius (Englished as Polydore Vergil in the title of the translation of the latter work published by the Camden Society) spells his own name with an *e* in the first syllable and cites that of his great-grandfather, a teacher of philosophy at Paris, as Antonius Vergilius. Of the ninety-two editions of the complete works of the poet published in the fifteenth century and described by Copinger (*Trans. Bibl. Soc.*, vol. II) at least ten have *Vergilius* in the general title or in the title of Cristoforo Landino's commentary, though elsewhere they recognize also the spelling *Virgilius*; nine of these editions were published in Venice.

In the following century the two spellings of the Latin name appear side by side; there was a rivalry between *Virgilius* transmitted from the Middle Ages and *Vergilius* restored by scholars. Not far from one-third of the sixteenth century editions of Virgil in the collection of the British Museum have the latter spelling in their titles; and in the same period *Vergilio* was used in several Italian translations. After the sixteenth century the restored spelling lost ground rapidly, no doubt on account of the influence of the vernacular forms; it became increasingly rare until by the end of the eighteenth century it had almost entirely disappeared both in editions of the poet and in the writings of scholars.

Toward the middle of the last century in Germany remarkable progress was manifested in restoring the texts of several Latin authors. Jahn's *Persius*, for example, appeared in 1843, his *Juvenal* in 1851; Nipperdey's *Cæsar* was published in 1847, and Lachmann's *Lucretius* in 1850. In this period names and titles were more carefully scrutinized, than in any former age since the time of the Latin grammarians, and the name of our poet received its share of attention. Already before 1850 the spelling *Vergilius* had begun to appear in the writings of scholars; and in the decade from 1850 to 1860 both the Latin form and, in Germany, the vernacular form *Vergil* became common. Nevertheless, as late as 1861 a meeting of philologists in Frankfort debated at length the question which spelling of the Latin name should be used; the form *Vergilius* was not generally adopted until after the appearance of Ribbeck's large edition, of which the first volume left the press in 1859, and the discussion by Ritschl, which was published in 1868. The corrected spelling of the Latin name has now become so fixed in philological literature that we can hardly doubt that it will remain permanently.

Altogether different is the question of the spelling of the name in English. It would be a waste of time to bring forward proof to show that from the beginnings of the English literature, until now *Virgil* has been the accepted literary form. Under the impulse of the restoration of the classical spelling a number of German and American scholars and teachers, a few English and

still fewer French and Italian scholars introduced an *e* into the first syllable of the vernacular forms of the name. The experiment of changing the spelling in these languages has now had about forty years of trial, and we may properly make inquiry in regard to the results.

The convenience of classical students would, of course, be subserved by the general adoption of the spelling *Vergil*; how awkward it is to be obliged to write the Latin form with one spelling and the English with another! Many of us hoped that the revised spelling would be acceptable and would generally prevail. After four decades, however, we must, I think, frankly admit that the effort to make current in English the corrected spelling *Vergil* is a failure; the tendencies of our vernacular are too strong to be shaped by the protests and example of a group of specialists. But of classical scholars by no means all adopted the reformed spelling of the name; and it would not be fair to attribute wholly to conservatism their disinclination to recognize the innovation. In England Professor Nettleship, to be sure, adopted the new spelling, as did Robinson Ellis and a few others; yet are we to suppose that H. A. J. Munro or the late Richard Jebb were less sensitive to considerations of scholarship than they? These scholars continued to write *Virgil*, as did Sellars; and this is the spelling adopted by the Mayors, by J. S. Reid, Lewis Campbell, Haigh, and a host of other British scholars of standing. According to present indications, the use of *Vergil* is declining, that of *Virgil* is gaining ground. Leaving out of account the spelling adopted by writers outside the classical field, we may perhaps measure this tendency with the help of statistics. A rough count designed to indicate the usage among English-speaking scholars who contributed to the literature of our poet in the decade from 1887 to 1896 showed that approximately one-half spelled *Vergil*; in the decade just closed, 1897 to 1906, only about one-third used this spelling. We are able, I believe, to discern in these facts the manifestation of a tendency which is stronger than the influence of any group of specialists. One or two aspects of it seem capable of analysis.

In the first place, the change of spelling in English from *Virgil*, the historical English form, to *Vergil* is not accompanied by any change in the pronunciation. The "Century Dictionary," for instance, marks as identical the pronunciation of the first syllable of *verger* and *virgin*; even if we should try to make a distinction in pronunciation between *Virgil* and *Vergil*, the tendencies of our speech toward the obscuring of the vowel sounds would soon nullify our efforts. The distinction is therefore wholly addressed to the eye, and is not in the direction either of greater accuracy of phonetic discrimination or of simplified spelling, of which we hear so much at the present time. The use of the spelling *Vergil* has then no other motive than to teach etymology, to suggest to the reader (for the hearer cannot tell which spelling is used) that the Latin proper name has an *e* and not an *i* in the first syllable.

Again and again has experience shown how difficult it is to exempt a single word from the class or category to which it belongs and by purposeful effort to give to it, so to speak, an individual form and career. If we are to teach etymology through

the spelling of English words, could we not as properly insist upon *caelestial* for *celestial* as upon *Vergil* for *Virgil*? If proper names are to be singled out for restoration to etymological forms, should we not write *Horate* instead of *Horace*, *Juppiter* instead of *Jupiter*, and *Neapolis* instead of *Naples*? The truth is that mankind has no reverence for a derivation. If our case could be left to a tribunal of scholars, there can be no doubt about the final issue. But the court of last resort in matters such as that under consideration is not the consensus of expert opinion; it is usage. Recently Dr. Henry Bradley, who is associated with Professor Murray in the editorship of the new "Oxford Dictionary," was asked whether any changes in spelling were to be introduced into the work. He is quoted as replying: "No. We take words as they stand in current literature. That is the form of spelling accepted by the people, although it may not be as it ought to be."

All will agree that the confusion in the spelling of the poet's name in editions and in the periodicals is unfortunate. In no previous period was it more important for students of the classics to present an unbroken front to the forces of philistinism. In order to compass the largest measure of good for society which we serve, our work and interest should be brought into the closest possible relation and sympathy with the life about us. On this point of classical scholarship we have appealed to Cæsar. We have offered the spelling *Vergil* because it is etymologically correct, and it has been rejected. Shall we classical teachers and students then persist in using it as a mark of erudition, as a special badge of distinction for our class? Such use would surely lay us open to the charge of pedantry; and we may perhaps not inappropriately apply to our own conditions the words penned by Ritschl forty years ago, at the close of the discussion already quoted: "May pedantry not cast over learning a shadow to bring down upon it the ridicule of the wider circle of cultivated people!" The fellow countrymen of Ritschl have not heeded his warning in respect to the spelling of the name of the Roman poet; but in matters such as this we may well believe that the literary traditions of the English are in some respects more sharply defined and persistent than are those of the German stock.

FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

Ann Arbor, Mich., August 24.

JOHN EVELYN ON SPELLING REFORM. TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I ventured some months ago to send you an extract from Howell's Letters, expressing his desire for changes in the spelling of English, similar to those that are under consideration to-day. In reading Evelyn's Letters, I find the following passage, of like tenor. It is of the date 1665, and is addressed to Sir Peter Wyche, who was the chairman of a committee appointed by the Royal Society "to consider of the improvement of the English tongue."

I would humbly propose . . . that a more certain orthography were introduced by leaving out superfluous letters, etc., such as *o* in *Women*, *People*; *u* in *Honour*, *a* in *Reproach*, *ugh* in *Though*, etc.

The chief interest, I think, in these sug-

gestions, as in those of Howell, lies in the fact that we have already adopted some of them, an argument for our adopting all. We no longer write *Woomen*, why should we write *People*? GRACE NORTON.

Cambridge, Mass., August 24.

Notes.

Among the books which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for publication this autumn are "Greece and the Aegean Islands," by Philip S. Marden; "The Pulse of Asia," a book of travel and exploration in Central Asia, by Ellsworth Huntington; "Human Bullets," a soldier's story of Port Arthur, by Tadayoshi Sakmai, with an introduction by Count Okuma, translated by Masujiro Honda and Alice M. Bacon; "Memoirs of Monsieur Claude," chief of the police under the Second Empire, translated by Katherine Prescott Wormeley; volumes III and IV of Col. Theodore A. Dodge's "Napoleon"; "Life of William Pitt Fessenden," by Gen. Francis Fessenden; "Life and Times of Stephen Higginson," by Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson; "Elizabethan Drama, 1558-1642," by Prof. Felix E. Schelling; "The Literature of Roguery," by Frank W. Chandler; "Personalism," by Prof. Borden Parker Bowne; "The Stannaries," a study of the English tin-miner, vol. iii. in the Harvard Economic Studies, by George Randall Lewis; the Cambridge Edition of Spencer's Complete Poetical Works, edited by Prof. R. E. Neil Dodge; "Longfellow's Sonnets," edited by Ferris Greenslet; "The Temple of Virtue," six sermons by the Rev. Paul Revere Frothingham; "Mornings in the College Chapel," Second Series, short addresses by Prof. Francis G. Peabody; "Bibliography of Ralph Waldo Emerson," by George Willis Cooke; "A Theory of Motives, Ideals, and Values in Education," by William E. Chancellor; and "Smokeless Sin," by Prof. Edward Alsworth Ross.

The Macmillan Co. announces as forthcoming "The United States as a World Power," a critical study of the international position of the United States to-day, by Prof. Archibald Cary Coolidge of Harvard. The author discusses the formation and growth of the United States, the composition of its white population, the colored elements; the Monroe Doctrine, the Spanish War, and the Acquisition of Colonies; the Economic Status of the Country; the relations of the United States with continental Europe, England, Canada, and the countries of Latin-America; the presence of the United States in the Pacific and its relations with China and Japan. The same firm will soon issue a revised and enlarged edition of Henry Charles Lea's "History of Sacerdotal Celibacy in the Christian Church"; the second volume of the new edition of William B. Yeats's Poems, containing dramas in verse; Lieut.-Col. J. H. Patterson's "The Man-Eaters of Tsavo and other Adventures in British East Africa."

Doubleday, Page & Co. will issue this month "Memoirs of an Arabian Princess," translated by Lionel Strachey; "The Up-rising of the Many," by Charles E. Russell; and "Famous Stories Every Child Should Know," edited by Hamilton Wright Mabie.

A great number of curious details of mediæval and modern criminal procedures are given by E. P. Evans in "The Criminal Prosecution and Capital Punishment of Animals" (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). Noxious beasts, such as weevils, rats, and larger animals, were summoned to appear before the civil court, where, being unable to attend in person, they were represented by a procurator appointed by the judge. Their devastations being proved by witnesses, it was urged by their counsel that they were God's creatures and therefore entitled to food, or that they were God's instruments for the punishment of the sins of the people; these pleas often prevailed, and a place was assigned the beasts, to which they were commanded to betake themselves. If they continued their depredations they were cited to appear before the ecclesiastical court, which ordered them to depart under pain of anathema. They could not, however, be excommunicated, since they were not members of the church. Pigs, bulls, and other animals were regularly tried for manslaughter, and if found guilty, were publicly executed. Punishment was regarded sometimes as retaliatory, sometimes as preventive. Distinguished juriconsults pronounced elaborate arguments and wrote learned books on the methods and principles of the trial of animals. The questions whether they were morally responsible and whether they were lay or cleric were discussed. Injurious beasts were often regarded as instruments of Satan, possessed by demons, which might enter into human beings and must then be exorcised. This view is the attenuated form of the early belief in the divine character of animals. The worship of animals originates not as our author holds (p. 85), "in the belief that they are embodiments of devils," but in the conviction that they are gods. An additional chapter deals with mediæval and modern penological theories, and many old legal documents are given in an Appendix. The bibliographical material is valuable. The volume is the result of the revision and expansion of two essays by the author printed in the *Atlantic Monthly* in 1884.

A few readers who have an eye for religious literature of the finer qualities may remember a slight volume of sermons of some seven years ago entitled "Dwellers in Tents," by Frederic E. Dewhurst, then a Congregational clergyman of Indianapolis. The discourses indicated a preacher of quiet manner, but of exceptional insight in religious matters, and the same qualities are evident in "The Investment of Truth and Other Sermons" (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press), a posthumous volume, with an Introduction by Prof. Albion W. Small. The sermons are of the essay type, with no attempt at oratory or immediate impression, but forceful by reason of firm grasp of essential spiritual truth, clear diction, orderly arrangement of thought, and abundant sympathy with present problems and doubts. Mr. Dewhurst's appeal is to the few, but to these he appeals strongly.

The Rev. Wilbur F. Crafts, the moral reform agitator, has revised his Princeton lectures on "Practical Christian Sociology," and brought to date the large mass of statistics contained in the volume (Funk & Wagnalls Co.). The theme of the lectures

is "the study of society from a Christian standpoint, with a view to its Christianization." The very full notes on the text include a large number of bibliographical references, which complete indices render easily available. Some seventy-five pages are devoted to "chronological data of humane progress." The book is a repository of sociological facts, chiefly arranged with a view to agitation against intemperance, impurity, and gambling, and in favor of the observance of Sunday.

The interest now being evinced in a modern conception and interpretation of the Scriptures can be seen from the fact that the new condensed commentary on the New Testament, strictly along critical lines, edited, with the coöperation of other experts, by Prof. Johann Weiss of the University of Marburg, the first edition of which appeared not many months ago under the title "Die Schriften des Neuen Testaments neu übersetzt und für die Gegenwart erklärt" (Goettingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht), is already appearing in twelve sections, at one mark a piece, in a second edition. About one-half of the second edition has come out, covering Mark, Matthew, and Luke, together with the Acts. It is significant that the Gospel of John is not yet included, but will be found later among the Apostolic Epistles as a *Lehrschrift*, and not as an historical account of the life of Christ. The whole is preceded by an introduction, "Geschichte des Neuen Testaments," by Professor Jülicher, the contents of which are largely a condensation of the author's views found in his "Einleitung in das Neue Testament," one of the best in the set that makes up the *Grundriss der theologischen Wissenschaften*, published by Mohr, of Tübingen. The fundamental conception of the gospels here elaborated is that the Scriptures contain reliable, historical data concerning both the sayings and doings of Jesus, but in addition also not a little unhistorical accumulation of fable, fiction, and the like. To separate these two elements is the critic's chief business. Works like this new commentary, the *Grundriss* series, Marti's Old Testament commentary, and others show to what a remarkable degree the Germans have learned to condense and to popularize for the general reader the results of their vast critical researches. It is scarcely a dozen years ago since such scholars as the late Professor Stade of Giessen lamented that England and America understood the secret of the condensation of learned theology and Germany did not.

Prof. E. Sellin of the University of Vienna, who has had charge of the archaeological researches made by the Germans in Palestine in recent years, and under whose direction the German Archaeological School at Jerusalem began its work on the site of the Biblical Jericho, has just sent his preliminary report to the Vienna Academy of Sciences. The excavations are being made by about one hundred natives at five different places near the Elisha fountain. In the northern section were discovered the ruins of an old castle, which consisted of a tower twenty feet high, and a structure of four stories, connected with stone steps. In three of the rooms were bake-ovens. Utensils of va-

rious kinds were discovered, as also reliefs, with a picture of fleeing gazelles pursued by a lion. Another structure, with utensils of various kinds, was laid bare in another portion of the grounds. In still another some remnants of the old city wall of Jericho were unearthed, at one place a section of a brick wall as much as forty feet thick, built on a foundation of hewn stone two feet high. At another place, the searcher found private houses in different strata, built one upon the other, and evidently representing different stages in the history of this famous city. Most of the houses belonged to the old Canaanitish and prehistoric age. Among the finds are lamps, plates, weights, needles, handmills, and the like, some of clay, others of bronze. Professor Sellin will continue his researches next season.

"Systematische Philosophie," constituting Teil I., Abteilung VI., of the excellent series, *Die Kultur der Gegenwart, ihre Entwicklung und ihre Ziele*, edited by Prof. Paul Hinneberg (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner), is the seventh volume of this set. The purpose of the series is to present from the pens of leading authorities in every department of scientific research a brief, yet complete, account of the results, present status, and problems, the whole to constitute a collection, a *multum in parvo*, from which the thoughtful reader can get a clear conception of the factors and forces that enter into the composite of modern intellectual and spiritual life. This latest volume is the combined work of nine recognized specialists, chiefly from the university circles of Germany. Wilhelm Dilthey writes the Introduction, "Das Wesen der Philosophie" (1-72); Alois Riehl, "Logik und Erkenntnistheorie" (73-102); Wilhelm Wundt, "Metaphysik" (103-137); Wilhelm Ostwald, "Naturphilosophie" (138-172); Hermann Ebbinghaus, "Psychologie" (173-246); Rudolf Eucken, "Philosophie der Geschichte" (247-281); Friedrich Paulsen, "Ethik" (282-348); Wilhelm Münch, "Pädagogik" (313-348); Theodor Lipps, "Ästhetik" (349-388). The concluding discussion, "Die Zukunftsaufgaben der Philosophie," is by Friedrich Paulsen (309-422). Each of these surveys is opened with an Introduction, containing generally an historical account of a discussion of principles and problems, and a helpful selection of the best literature on the subject. Of the six volumes which have preceded this on Systematic Philosophy, five belong to Teil I., and are entitled "Die Allgemeinen Grundlagen der Kultur der Gegenwart," from seventeen authors, Paulsen, however, appearing twice: "Die Orientalischen Religionen," from nine authors; "Die Christliche Religion mit Einschluss der Israelitisch-Jüdischen Religion," from fourteen authors, including not only such advanced leaders as Wellhausen, Jülicher, Harnack, Troeltsch, but also conservatives like R. Seeberg and Bonwetsch, and even the lately deceased brilliant Catholic historian of Tübingen, F. X. von Funk; "Die Orientalischen Literaturen," from twelve authors, among them Erich Schmidt, Erman, Bezold, Gunkel, and the prince of German Orientalists, Nöldeke; "Die Griechische und Lateinische Literatur und Sprache," by six authors, among them Willamowitz-Moellendorf and K. Krumbacher. Teil II. is so far represented only by a single volume, namely "Systematische

Rechtswissenschaft," from twelve authors. The cost of these volumes is from nine to eighteen marks, according to size. In many respects these discussions remind the reader of similar articles in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," but in this case they are the work of German scholarship alone, and not the outcome of an international co-operation of savants. So far, the undertaking has received the warmest welcome at the hands of critical journals in Germany.

Louis Franklin Snow has published his thesis for the degree of Ph.D. at Columbia, "The College Curriculum in the United States." This volume, containing 186 pages, is an elaborate study of the development of the curriculum from the founding of Harvard to the present day. Dr. Snow has laid under contribution a large mass of books and documents, many of them not easily accessible; he has consulted not merely printed catalogues, rules of government, and committee reports, but also the private records of various boards of trustees and faculties, as well as diaries and memoirs of students and professors, some of them still unprinted. To this material he has given clear and orderly arrangement in six chapters, supplemented by a bibliography. "The history of the college curriculum in the United States," says Dr. Snow, "might well be written from five formal documents." These are: The Laws of President Dunster of Harvard, 1642; the Programme of the First Provost of Pennsylvania, 1756; the Report of the Yale Faculty, 1828; the Report of the Committee of Ten, 1892; and the Incorporation Papers of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1902. To the analysis of these documents and of their effect both on the colleges for which they were specially prepared and on other institutions. Dr. Snow very properly devotes much of his space. Subordinate matters, however, receive suitable attention. The thesis is fully annotated; and both text and notes contain many curious and interesting facts gleaned from the history of higher education in this country.

Those familiar with Prof. Friedrich Paulsen's life-long activity in the educational world centring at Berlin, and his masterly handling of the history of the German universities, will feel that no one could discuss "Das deutsche Bildungswesen in seiner geschichtlichen Entwicklung" (just published by Teubner in Leipzig) so well as he. He is not dismayed by the limitations of space imposed by the plan of the series *Aus Natur und Geisteswelt*, for if he must pass numerous details unnoted, he is able to sketch with firmer hand and in nobler outline the main figures in the development of a system that, long before the world paid homage to German arms, excited the admiration of mankind. Professor Paulsen takes large views of human society and the part played by his countrymen in it; he sees that the forces at work in the German school system do not act independently, but that the German world of culture is controlled by the ebb and flow of forces in the wider circle of *Kultur* in various lands. The work is divided into four books: the first dealing with the first half of the Middle Ages, A. D., 600—1200, when cloister and cathedral schools predominated, and the second half, A. D., 1200—1500, when

universities and city schools were established; the second book carries the reader on through the Renaissance and the Reformation; the third outlines the ruling tendencies of the times following 1650 and the new *Bildungsideal*, showing the penetration of modern forces in the educational systems, and the status of affairs at the end of the eighteenth century; the fourth is devoted to the development of education in the nineteenth century, with a modest but satisfied retrospect of the whole, and a glance far out, and beyond the seas even, into the future. There is no index, but there is a bibliography of nearly forty titles, none of which shows that any American scholar has yet commanded attention abroad for a consummate study of the educational methods of the Germans. With this little volume, Professor Paulsen rounds out an exhaustive study of German educational conditions, begun long before his "Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts" which, in its second, enlarged edition of 1896, attracted such wide attention.

The centenary of the independence of Mexico will be celebrated in 1910 by the opening of the new University of Mexico. A large amount is to be spent on the building and equipment; and this is only one symptom of a general demand expressed by all classes for educational advance. A federal educational department has been created, and the authorities of the various States are also taking a warm interest in the question.

Perhaps the most important contribution of the year to Scandinavian philology is Prof. A. Kock's "Svensk Ljudhistoria"—History of Swedish Sounds—of which the second part has just been issued from the press of C. W. K. Glurup, Lund, Sweden. The first volume, which covers only the vowels, contains 504 pages; vol. ii., which is to deal in a similar way with the consonants, is to be issued in the near future. Professor Kock traces historically Swedish sounds from the Primitive Germanic period through Old Scandinavian and the Middle Swedish period down to the present time. While this work is intended primarily, of course, for Scandinavianists, it forms also a distinct contribution to general Germanic philology, and even contains many hints on Indo-European conditions.

G. Steichert & Co. of this city import a "Geschichte der Vereinigten Staaten," by Dr. E. Daenell, professor at the University at Kiel. Professor Daenell is usually well informed, and as kindly disposed toward us as any German could be who perceives that in 1898 we threw to the winds Washington's good advice about mixing up in other people's affairs, and that, as a consequence, we are now scrambling for our share of the world power. Like many Germans who handle our statistics at more than arm's length, he has a touch of sad humor. For example, he gives a list of the Presidents of the United States, and finds among them Jefferson Davis! There is a bibliography of seventy-five books bearing on America, of which thirty-four are in German; but one fails to see how such a work can be practical without an index.

Recent movements in Germany for the training of women in library work, and the

increasing proportion of women employed in both the scientific and popular libraries of that country, are made the subject of a special investigation and report by the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*. From this report are summarized the following facts: Two schools for the special training of women in library economy are now in operation in Berlin. One, founded in 1900, by Hottinger, has a course covering three years of study, including four foreign languages, science, history, literature, as well as the practical technique of library work. For admission, it requires a high school certificate or its equivalent. The other school, planned along somewhat different lines, was founded in 1902 by Professor Wolfsteig. It admits no one under nineteen years of age, and requires for its final certificate of graduation, not only a theoretical knowledge of library science, but satisfactory service for at least six months in a library or publisher's office. From this school, seventy-five women have already received certificates, of whom twenty-six have found places in scientific libraries, and eighteen in public libraries. On the general question of the suitability of women for library work, the report is conservative, particularly in regard to positions in the more scholarly libraries, pointing out, however, that even in these there are occupations for which women may be well qualified, such as the arrangement of cards and the copying of titles for the catalogue. For work in popular libraries, a much wider sphere for women is recognized. The report, while not assuming that they are fitted to be heads of large city libraries, yet admits that in these libraries there are many important positions to which women may legitimately aspire; and that in many smaller cities the libraries, if properly grouped under the supervision of a man, might be treated as coöperating branches of one system with a woman at the head of each branch. The hope is expressed that with the increase of the number of women in the profession much may be done for the extension and improvement of the people's libraries.

In Portsmouth, N. H., the early home of the late T. B. Aldrich, a committee, headed by the Mayor, has formed the Thomas Bailey Aldrich Memorial Association, with the following board of directors: Mayor Wallace Hackett, Alfred Gooding, E. P. Kimball, C. A. Hazlett, and Wallis D. Walker of Portsmouth; Talbot Aldrich, Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Francis Bartlett, George H. Mifflin, Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson, George E. Woodberry, Prof. Bliss Perry, and Ferris Greenslet of Boston; Samuel L. Clemens, Edmund Clarence Stedman, Richard Watson Gilder, William Dean Howells, Edward H. Burlingame, Henry M. Alden, and F. P. Dunne of New York; H. W. Mabie of Summit, N. J.; Prof. Henry van Dyke of Princeton; Thomas Nelson Page of Washington, D. C.; and Dr. S. Weir Mitchell of Philadelphia. The association proposes, to acquire by purchase the old house in Portsmouth which belonged to Mr. Aldrich's grandfather, Thomas Darling Bailey, the house in which Mr. Aldrich spent his boyhood, and which is endeared to readers of "The Story of a Bad Boy" as the "Nutter House," and to preserve it as a memorial museum. Mrs. Aldrich and Talbot Aldrich, the poet's surviving son, have agreed to deposit there his

collection of first editions, manuscripts, and autographs, together with other literary relics of interest, and have undertaken to restore the interior of the house as nearly as possible to its old-time appearance. The present representatives of the Bailey family have offered to replace in the house much of its original furnishings. It is hoped to raise by popular subscription among admirers of Mr. Aldrich the sum of \$10,000 for the purchase and maintenance of the house. Contributions may be sent to the treasurer of the Thomas Bailey Aldrich Memorial Association, care of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., No. 4 Park Street, Boston.

In twenty-seventh annual report of the Peoria Public Library, the librarian, E. S. Willcox, condemns the "open shelf" system as confusing to readers. He adds:

Wherever inventories have been taken, and they are frequently shirked, the library boards are amazed at the losses by theft and by mutilation of many of their most precious volumes. Of the few who have had the courage to take an inventory, one library reported 1,000 volumes a year for four years, and went back to the old way. The Boston Public Library reported in 1905 a loss of 1,693 volumes in one year; the Providence Public Library the same year, 1,796; the Los Angeles Public Library, 4,044 a year for two years, and 2,988 the last year reported. They are at their wits' end. They begin to realize that the open shelf is only another word for self-slaughter.

A GOOD INTRODUCTORY HISTORY.

An Introductory History of England, from Henry VII. to the Restoration. By C. R. L. Fletcher. London: John Murray.

Mr. Fletcher's work has but two defects. That any candid critic except himself would have described his style as "crabbed, tortuous, and elliptical English," we doubt; but there is a real danger that Mr. Fletcher, though writing with attractive vigor and spirit, should too often indulge in allusiveness. Young people, even the cleverest, are ignorant. No teacher should ever presume that they will catch an out-of-the-way allusion. Then, too, if they are children worth writing for, they like to be told a tale with directness and plainness. Mr. Fletcher, we admit, has to meet an inevitable difficulty: he has got so much to tell, and his mind is so filled with his subject, that he naturally longs to press as much into his pages as he can. He hates therefore to waste words, but he must sedulously avoid the temptation to make use of allusive compression. In the next place, there exists a possibility that our author may fail, as most of us do, to see exactly where his own strength lies. It is to be found not precisely in picturesque-ness, though his words are often full of life. It does not lie exactly in philosophic generalization, though his thoughts are always worth attention and frequently pregnant and luminous. It consists in the gift, for which it is hard to find the right name, of bringing into view and at the same time of illustrating, in the strict sense of that much-abused word, the features of a given time or situation. This natural eye for important facts is the rare talent on which he safely may, and ought to, rely. It is an endowment of special worth to a teacher who can command an audience of ingenuous and intelligent youths. How excellent is Mr. Fletcher's workmanship when he gives full play to his peculiar power will

be appreciated by any one who notes the skill with which our author sums up and displays to his readers the salient features of a given political crisis. Let us examine, for instance, the few pages—they are not more than thirteen or fourteen—in which he describes the condition of things under which Charles I. opened the civil war.

The first fact to be noted, and one of the most important, is that England, towards the middle of the seventeenth century, was physically, so to speak, a different England from the country inhabited by modern Englishmen:

It was a far more open country than it is at the present day. The Tudor enclosures had affected perhaps one-third of the southern, eastern, and midland counties. The rest of the cultivated land still lay in hedgeless, open fields; and far more than half of the whole acreage was still moorland, down, marsh, or wood.

This, it will be said, is obvious. So be it, though things which are obvious are constantly forgotten. But then this obvious fact leads in the hands of a true historian to weighty conclusions. Almost all the traffic of the country was sea-borne. It was in one sense a country through which it was difficult to move about, yet the contending armies occasionally moved at an astounding pace:

The explanation probably is that horses (not forage) were cheap and abundant, and munitions of war, and even cannons, very light. Cavalry was the main branch of the service, and in an open country cavalry can move anywhere; even in the enclosed country the scanty hedges were not very formidable to a race of *ιπποδάμοι*.

A physical fact affects, then, the whole mode of fighting; and with this consideration must be linked a second fact, namely, that the mechanism of modern warfare had, as Mr. Fletcher convincingly shows us, been in the middle of the seventeenth century but imperfectly developed. The pikeman was still forced to use a two-foot blade on a sixteen-foot ash staff. He wore a half-cuirass of steel, and on his head a steel cap on a leather foundation; he carried a sword, which was seldom used, girt to his side. One comes to wonder as one reads these and other details as to the pikeman's armor, how he ever marched at all. The position of the musketeer who had no defensive armor, and in case of a charge by the enemy had to fall back behind his brother pikemen for defence, was little if at all better than that of his defender. The mode of loading and firing his gun was so awkward that if you had the calamity to be a musketeer "you often blew up yourself and your front-rank man with the powder and match with which you were laden." We must omit many of Mr. Fletcher's details, but we must bear in mind his general statement that "what we call the scientific branches of the service, engineers and artillery, were woefully behind; the war was fought under such conditions that of entrenching there was virtually none." The moment that these and the like characteristics of warfare in the seventeenth century are impressed on the reader's mind, he begins to understand what must often have perplexed him: how it came to pass that cavalry was to be the deciding arm of the war.

If the physical condition of the country and the imperfect development of the ma-

chinery of war count for much, Mr. Fletcher makes clear the importance of another circumstance which often escapes the attention of even intelligent students. The population of England was both in numbers, in distribution, and in character, completely different from the 32,000,000 or so which crowd, if they do not overcrowd, the England of to-day. At the beginning of the Civil War, the people of England may have been between four and five millions, of whom all but a million would be persons engaged in agriculture. Of that remaining million, London would account for three-eighths. During the war its population increased rapidly, if for no other reason, just because it was the safest place. . . . Norwich and Bristol may have held 50,000 between them; the small manufacturing towns of the eastern counties; of Somerset and the West Riding of Yorkshire, another 50,000. Not much is left for the other towns." England, in short, was an agricultural country, in which were scattered up and down two or three large towns, and not, as now, a land of cities separated here and there by stretches of country. Englishmen were squires, yeomen, and farmers; they were not for the most part merchants, manufacturers, shopkeepers, and artisans. Yet in this country of agriculturalists London, with less than a million inhabitants, exercised far greater power than does the London of to-day, with its population of from four to five million.

Add to all this that "the activity and intelligence of all except the lowest class was probably never greater at any period of English history," and one sees at once that the English Civil War of the seventeenth century was a phenomenon totally different from almost any other armed conflict among citizens with which the world was then acquainted. The nearest historical parallels in subsequent days are presented by the War of the Swiss Sonderbund and the War of Secession. All of these three civil conflicts present at least three points of similarity. They were each fought out between civilians, who were turned into soldiers of conspicuous bravery and efficiency from the necessity of deciding by the use of force a political issue which could not be determined by any other method. In each war, though in different degrees, men who had been trained in country life played a great part. In each war victory at last fell to the party which commanded the largest physical resources. Nor need any moralist sigh over this result. The power of material wealth—to keep the mind fixed upon the English Civil War—represented on the whole the thought, the energy, the intelligence, even in a sense the religious earnestness, no less than the mercantile resources of England. How this should be so must be learned from a study of Mr. Fletcher's pages and the books, such as S. R. Gardiner's *History*, which he encourages his pupils to read.

The aim of a reviewer must be to insist that our author brings into light, with the utmost skill and in a way which will impress youthful readers, the true conditions which govern the course of the contest between Parliament and Crown, and shows more distinctly than almost any writer with whom we are acquainted how from these conditions flowed two marked characteristics of the conflict between Roundheads

and Cavaliers. The first is that the war was carried on with conspicuous humanity, and this, as Mr. Fletcher points out, is the more remarkable because such trained soldiers as served on either side had been trained amid, and, one might have feared, corrupted by, the reckless barbarism of the Thirty Years' War. That this humanity was in part due to the moral earnestness of the leaders and soldiers on both sides one may well believe. It was also in part attributable to the absence of foreign intervention. Wherever foreigners, or men whom Englishmen deemed foreigners, took part in the contest, Englishmen began to show the savagery natural to civil conflict. The second characteristic closely allied to the first is that neither party could claim any monopoly of patriotism or righteousness. We are most thankful to Mr. Fletcher for having made this fact as plain as day. It is very rare for an author who feels with so much vehemence to write with so much fairness:

We may well be very proud of our ancestors on either side in the great civil war. Never was a war undertaken more soberly, more seriously, or with greater regret; never was peace more ardently desired by the best elements on each side; never were higher ideals upheld, and never by more religious and righteous soldiers.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Lone Star. By Eugene P. Lyle, jr. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mr. Lyle has chosen to open his novel with a few pages of rather aggressive smartness; but once in motion, he flings aside spangles and rides gallantly to the close. His tale is a captivating one. The history of the making of Texas has not often been told in story, and it is a thrilling subject. The writer's enthusiasm for the early Texan heroes gives his pages a personal warmth which possibly the casual reader never expected to feel for Stephen Austin, for Sam Houston, or for Jim Bowie. These loom large, yet come very close in a tale that begins with the Mexican exclusion of Americans and ends with the battle of San Jacinto. The brawls, the battles, the divided policies, "the personal equation between race and race," form a drama of stern, often terrible, interest. Over against the pioneer figures stands that of Santa Ana in no glorious light. "A more distracting riddle in the way of a Latin-American has never, to my knowledge, toyed with the destinies of his country. To try to explain him is vexation."

Young Harry Ripley, who tells the story, is satisfyingly differentiated from the usual autobiographic hero of fiction by his human weaknesses. He is morally brave, and physically as well when nobility constrains him. He figures as blunderer and sometimes as dupe, but always retrieves himself by candor and a high courage. And so, like all the characters in the book, we find him a most lovable boy. The "little Catamou't" heroine plays her part attractively, and not too conventionally. But the Texan struggle for existence is the pith of the book, and the interesting thing is to find it made into dignified fiction, and not into the blustering "cowboyism" of a Wild West Show. Not

that there is any lack of cowboyism or of horrors, but they form a contributory part, and not the essence of an historical record, good for young and old Americans.

Barbary Sheep. By Robert Hichens. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Admirers of Mr. Hichens will perhaps be disappointed to find so little actual reading matter between the covers of this fair-sized volume. A somewhat slender rill of text flows between the decorated borders, and the paper is of the thickest. One's attention is almost diverted from the fact that Mr. Hichens has at last told his tale with compactness and restraint. It is the old tale of East and West, white love and brown love, circumstance and the desert. This writer has the art of being erotic, even neurotic, without offending the ordinary reader; his taint, if taint there be, concealing itself beneath a rosy and perfumed cloud of sentiment, after a fashion rather Gallic than English. Maupassant might have told this story—only he would not have begged the question. The woman is a pretty, spoiled young English wife, who lives only to be amused, yet quickly tires of any given form of amusement. The inevitable two men are her husband, complaisant and dull, a hunting beef-eater; and an Arab of European education, now a *spahi* in the French army. A sudden whim of the woman to see the desert brings the English pair to Algiers, and to a little inn on the very edge of the waste. Here the husband, who is not in the least impressed with the desert, discovers that there are Barbary sheep to be potted; and here, while he pots them, the *spahi* turns up. Well, nothing much happens, though great preparations are made; and with the reduction of our romantic son of the desert to a mere thief, the whole affair comes rather lamely to an end. To be frank, the story is marked by that species of emotional impotence which has been noticeable in so much of Mr. Hichens's work. As for the style and proportions of the narrative, they suggest, we have hinted, a distinct advance in the art of the novelist. The purple passages of description are few and not over-long; and there is a general abstention from "piling on the agony."

Lonewood Corner. By John Halsham. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

One of the marvels of English rustic life lies in the rich material it still affords, after such reapers as Walton, Borrow, Jeffries, Hardy, and the whole host of outdoor chroniclers have loved and described its mind and aspect. A poorer field would offer scant reward to the most patient gleaner. In dealing with this life, "Lonewood Corner" arrives at a certain charm from its impregnation with the quality—so grateful to some palates—of being unutterably, deeply English. The author respects tradition; he enjoys looking back. It is highly characteristic that he despises Marcus Aurelius ("Stodge" is the epithet he applies) as "one of those people who can only think of infinity in one direction, as if it didn't go both ways, behind as well as in front." He treasures ancient words, ancient methods of husbandry. Modern education fills him with darkest forebodings. Perhaps his happiest moment is when

Dempster, the village schoolmaster, London bred and trained, gives "nature study" lessons to his youthful hinds, and is, himself, unable to identify a cockchafer. And as for the government, "all the Virgilian plagues," he asserts, "the blights and weeds and birds and weather, one can face with a stout courage, but let a man begin to see behind the primordial contest the new odds of legislative interferences, municipal smoke-plagues, economic weed plagues and bird plagues, and it may go near to break his heart."

His friend, the Warden (who, like Trollope's, lives in an almshouse for ancient bedesmen), feels more hopeful:

We are getting out of the frozen slush of science by degrees; . . . when we are tired of splitting up the atom we may get back to the real mysteries—such as humor, for instance, and the thing we call vulgarity.

The analysis of humor occupies the author greatly. It is, he thinks, "the admission of the incalculable, something elastic in the brain which will stand the shock when two and two don't make four." Much pleasant speculation of this nature blends with pictures of his quiet hamlet in all weathers, with slight touches of rustic character and quotations ranging as far afield as from Plato to Cobbett, and with a steady allegiance to Montaigne, in whom he finds constant comfort for the shortcomings of the modern world.

Under the Pompadour. By E. W. Jennings. New York: Brentano's.

When a romance begins with an eighteenth century smuggling misadventure on the south coast of England, the normal reader prepares to settle back on ground made comfortably familiar in a hundred novels. But there is no settling back for him till this book is closed. Though many such stories have been full of events, this outstrips them all. The hero, who runs away to avoid seeing his family disgraced, has no space to breathe, how short soever, till in the last chapter he comes home again, chased to the penultimate by his ultimately vanquished or vanished foes. On his first flight to London he naturally encounters pistols and a lady, and it is hard to say whether his friendships or his enmities bring him into more exciting situations. His brief career in London is a picture of the city's life. The French and the English Jacobites are plotting together. Gambling and duelling are the industries of the day. At a rout may be met Selwyn, Walpole, Lord Chesterfield. In Fleet Street one may see Dr. Johnson and Reynolds. The "Fleet marriages," that enabled a bride to transfer her debts to a bridegroom, were among the amenities of the slums. It was the day when gentlemen wrote poems, minced their steps, and said "Sink me!" and "Strike me windy!"—when princes and 'prentices rubbed shoulders at Vauxhall, and sailors were carried off from Bartholomew Fair by press-gangs.

But London's experiences are but kindergarten play compared with those that await young Bradninch in Paris. The tool of designing courtiers, male and female, he is made Jacobite secretary to the Pompadour. Disguised for a love-tryst as a Jesuit priest, it is he who unwittingly made history by estranging Louis XV. from the

Dauphin. And, still making history, he overheard the conspiracy which entrusted to Damiens the attempt on the King's life. He is himself destined to the Bastille, but by a lucky mistake is sent to another prison, whence he escapes by a rope shot to him by a fair lady's arrow. He conveys to her news of his safety by a carrier pigeon, with which she has thoughtfully provided him, not forgetting a nun's costume and some luncheon. Finally, he sails back to England under fire from a pursuing vessel, a double duel occurring, on the way, while both the boats are aground on a sand bar.

This is a mere outline; it is filled in with marvels of combat, kidnapping, smuggling, besides court cabals, true love and false love, blood-letting, and treason. The plot is fairly thick, but the incidents far thicker. At times one scents the novel of manners, so detailed are the millinery and furnishings of the drama. But this is only a consistent feature of the general lavishness; for the things that happen are in due proportion to the atmosphere they happen in. Everything that had been invented down to 1757, from customs to stratagems, has been here put to use. And when all is said, if at times quite preposterously opulent in material, it is still a very entertaining, even plausible and suitably told story.

Behind the Scenes with the Mediums. By David P. Abbott. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.

If Mr. Abbott is not already a member of the Society for Psychical Research, he should be straightway elected. In this book he shows himself a clever "performer," one who is not likely to be deceived. As a performer—for that is the name given to the professional medium—he can do all the tricks of the séance; and as an observer he keeps cool. He has, indeed, never received any of those thrilling messages which have been the joy of Mrs. Piper and her satellites; nor have any whispers from departed psychologists reached his ears. He writes chiefly of those wonders upon which the "scientific" spiritualist looks with undisguised contempt. He has been about among the mediums and explains all their devices. Sealed envelopes, slate messages,appings, and luminous clouds have no terrors or mysteries for him. And all those who have a kind of shamefaced desire to know just what spiritualists do and how they do it will be entertained by his exposures. Even those who go full of faith to consult palmists, clairvoyants, fortune-tellers, and other modern sorcerers, will find him interesting. The lady who shudders when the prophetess gives her name and address with her eyes shut, and the gentleman who reads with avidity the letter written by his deceased mother-in-law, can here discover the *modus operandi*—and go back for more.

One of the most diverting parts of Mr. Abbott's book is concerned with fashions in spiritualism:

As soon as the first mediums could induce the spirits of the departed to return to earth and rap on tables and furniture, the fashion rapidly spread, and mediums all over the country sprang up with exactly these same powers. . . . As soon as a leading medium spoke of his magnetic

powers, all of the mediums in the country had magnetic powers, which, strange to say, could act on wood, and could also act in ways in which magnetism was never known to act. As soon as a leading medium started the fashion of having an Indian guide, all of the mediums in the country had Indian guides.

From what the author says, it may be inferred that belief in the genuineness of spirit manifestations, clairvoyancy, and other forms of magic is induced in two ways; first by the skill of the performer, and second by the inability of the victim to observe what really takes place. Even the initiated have to be on their guard to avoid being taken in. Indeed, a part of the mediums' skill consists in producing that confusion of mind which makes the visitor an easy prey. It is possible, for example, for one person to pretend to have both his hands in contact with those of another, while all the while one of them is free to fan the air, to move musical instruments about, and to strike the dupe on the face and head. Extraordinary pains are taken to prearrange the manifestations of the séance. Many of the audience-chambers of the spiritualists are fitted with elaborate contrivances—curtains, trap doors, and concealed entrances which hide or admit confederates. One medium uses "many elegant costumes, all made of the finest silk." He has one piece "consisting of twenty-one yards of the finest white French bridal veiling, which can be contained in a pint cup." This, after having been painted with a luminous fluid, brings the spirit world into the most dingy hall. And in all performances the means employed to confuse and distract the witness are varied.

Then, too, clairvoyants often have a detective system by which they learn the circumstances of their clients. When in doubt about what to say they may make assertions with a rising inflection of the voice; and in this way they get involuntary answers. The visitor will probably deny afterwards that he has made any response:

Systems of pumping or fishing are an art with mediums, and they grow very expert at it, and do it so naturally that it takes an expert to detect that he himself is giving the medium information.

Apparently also spiritualism is a profitable business:

A medium once told me that the public never knew half of the money that is gathered by mediums. . . . He also said that it is not the common people who are the best patrons of mediums, but doctors, lawyers, merchants, teachers, and the more intelligent class of persons.

The author's disclosures should make any unbiassed reader more than ever skeptical as to even the best authenticated stories of modern miracles. The professional medium may not earn his money honestly, but he earns it by great cleverness and industry. Men who have had a limited experience of the world are unfitted to outwit such shrewd and nimble-fingered men and women.

The Khasis. By Major P. R. T. Gurdon, with an introduction by Sir Charles Lyall. (Published under the orders of the Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam.) Illustrated. London: David Nutt.

Three years ago the Government of India ordered the preparation of a series of mon-

ographs on the more important tribes and castes of Assam. The object was to give a systematic account of the people, their manners, and customs, their ethnological affinities, their laws and institutions, their religious beliefs, their folk-lore, their theories as to their origin, and their language. This volume on the Khasis is the first of the series, the author being deputy-commissioner of the district in which they dwell, as well as superintendent of ethnography in Assam. He does not attempt to write for the casual reader, but the result is, according to Sir Charles Lyall, "an important contribution to the data of anthropology."

The Khasis, numbering 176,614, are an exceptionally interesting race, because of their isolation in the midst of a great encircling population, all of whom belong to a different stock; and because of the remarkable features presented by their language and institutions. Their social organization presents one of the most perfect examples still surviving of the matriarchate, carried out with wonderful logic and thoroughness. The mother is the head and the source and only bond of union in the family. In the most primitive part of the hills she is the only owner of real property, and through her alone is inheritance transmitted. The father has no kinship with his children, who belong to their mother's clan. On marriage, it is usual for the husband to live with his wife in his mother-in-law's house, but in some of the clans he only visits his wife there:

In Jowai, some people admitted to me that the husband came to his mother-in-law's house only after dark, and that he did not eat, smoke, or even partake of betel-nut there, the idea being that, because none of his earnings go to support this house, therefore it is not etiquette for him to partake of food or other refreshment there.

The principal deities worshipped are females, and a woman is high priestess. The sun is a woman, the moon a man, while in their language, which, so far as known, is the only member of the Môn-Khmér family having a grammatical gender, the feminine nouns immensely predominate.

Another remarkable custom, which prevails to this day, is that of erecting stone memorials, very similar to the menhirs and cromlechs which are found in western Europe, northern Africa, and western Asia. One of the most surprising experiences of the traveller, unprepared for the scene, is to find himself on a plateau surrounded by great groups of standing and table-stones, exactly like those at Stonehenge:

The table-stones are always placed towards the centre of the group, generally in front of the great central menhir. These groups of stones are usually situated alongside roads or close to well-known lines of route, where they readily attract the attention of the passers-by. They do not necessarily face in any particular direction, but are to be found fronting all points of the compass. There is nothing, therefore to show that they were erected so as to face the direction of the sunrise, or of any particular planet's.

A method of divination for ascertaining the causes of misfortune and the remedies to be applied is identical with that employed by the Romans, the inspection of entrails. Another, which seems to have been known to diviners in ancient Hellas,

consists in throwing an egg violently in the middle of an "egg-breaking" board and judging by some established rules, which are given, together with a diagram of the board, the good or evil prognostics, according as the fragments lie.

Major Purdon's book leaves a pleasant impression of the people, who are cheerful, industrious, good-tempered, moral, and trustworthy. They are fond of nature:

A Khasi loves a day out in the woods, where he thoroughly enjoys himself. If he does not go out shooting or fishing, he is content to sit still and contemplate nature. He has a separate name for each of the commoner birds and flowers. He also has names for many butterflies and moths.

These are traits rarely found in the people of India. The author gives an interesting selection from the folk-tales, of which the Khasis possess a considerable number. A sketch of the history of the race, so far as it can be traced, their origin being still undetermined, is contributed by Sir Charles Lyall. The illustrations are colored plates, pictures of the natives, and reproductions of photographs, three of which are of the memorial stones.

Science.

Foods and Their Adulteration. By Harvey W. Wiley. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. \$4 net.

The mustering out of Dr. Wiley's much-talked-of "poison squad" at Washington nearly coincides with the publication of this book, which is itself to be followed, according to the publisher's announcement, by a companion volume on "Beverages." The long-fought campaign for the Pure Food law has made the name of the Agricultural Department's chief chemist one, to conjure with at this country's dinner-tables. The Congressman who gave up iced tea because Dr. Wiley, in testifying before a House committee, had incidentally spoken against its use as a summer beverage was in the class with many thousands of unofficial persons. Unscrupulous packers and cannery men might furiously rage together, but a public, concerned as never before about its diet, continued to feel confidence in the official "food men."

In more than six hundred octavo pages, Dr. Wiley goes through the catalogue of substances used for human food, beginning with beef and ending with invalids' food, giving the chemical composition of each, the sources, methods of preparation, and the forms of sophistication against which the consumer should be on his guard. Occasionally, as in the directions for making soup stock, it touches on the field of the cook-book, and in other places on those of technical manuals, but in general it furnishes information which the person who desires, so to speak, to eat scientifically, ought to possess but rarely does.

The doctrine of *caveat emptor* has no place in the philosophy of modern food-reform. Full and accurate information for the consumer is its key-note. On this Dr. Wiley is insistent. For the use of artificial colors and preservatives he has no tolerance. Admitting the "great temptation" to use boric acid or sulphite of soda to pre-

serve beef juice, he considers both these substances "objectionable on the score of possible injury to health." In meats he holds all preservatives "are highly objectionable because they keep meats apparently fresh while in reality changes of the most dangerous character may be going on." Even the plea of the tomato ketchup manufacturers that their wares, which are used gradually from the bottle, will spoil before it is finished, he dismisses as "not of sufficient value to warrant the exception of tomato ketchup from the ordinary regulations respecting pure food." The coloring of butter "is open to suspicion with respect to unwholesomeness." The "floating" of oysters to fatten them is "reprehensible in every respect."

On other points Dr. Wiley is more tolerant than the man in the street. Thus he calls horse-meat "wholesome and nutritious," and for the proverbially distrusted sausage has only the mildly-phrased criticism that "much which is not eaten under its own name may be found in sausage."

This is not the book of a crank, and Dr. Wiley's views regarding the future of the American food-supply are in general optimistic. Thus: "It seems quite certain that in the near future practically all the milk that is sold upon the market will be of certified quality." Of meat, he only says, "It is hoped that the new methods of inspection established by the Secretary of Agriculture will secure the desired purity of meat products." He foresees high reputation, on their own merits, for fancy cheeses of American origin. Dr. Wiley's prediction of an increased use for vegetable oils and fats in place of lard and suet is interesting to the housewife, but it is to be feared that the scientific imagination runs away with the scientist when he remarks that "now that the use of horses for draught purposes has *practically been superseded* [our italics] by the automobile and the trolley.

... the production of real koumiss, from mare's milk might become a very useful field of industry in the United States."

A series of appendices containing the texts of the pure food law and other Federal statutes relating to food products, as well as a summary of administrative decisions under these acts, including the food standards established, is a valuable feature, which will become still more valuable if a later edition should be issued after the rulings, statutes, and court decisions have been worked into a coordinated body of laws and regulations on this most important subject.

"Useful Birds and their Protection," by Edward Howe Forbush (Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture), is a large volume containing a surprising amount of information, valuable both to the ornithologist and the farmer. If the people of Massachusetts do not hereafter discriminate between useful and harmless birds, and do not benefit from the encouragement of the former class, it will be because they willfully refuse to be advised by this competent ornithologist and entomologist. The first one hundred pages contain a thesis on the value of birds to man. Then the most useful birds of the State are taken up in respect to their usual habitat—orchard, woodland, garden, and marsh. A clear and terse description is given of each species and a brief résumé of its habits, with a

full account of its feeding. This forms the most valuable part of the volume, and brings together a host of hitherto widely scattered and uncorrelated facts. Checks upon the increase of useful birds are then considered, such as man, cats, squirrels, rats, hawks, owls, shrikes, and English sparrows. Mr. Forbush accuses not only the proverbially carnivorous red squirrel, but also the gray and the chipmunk, of devouring eggs and nestlings. Evidence is furnished that cats are perhaps the greatest enemies with which our native birds have to contend. The protection of birds is the subject of the final chapter, and every phase is admirably treated. Many of the illustrations are excellent photographs of living wild birds. The style is interesting.

The physical condition of the school children of Glasgow has been the subject of a recent interesting and valuable report by the school board. It is based not only on records of physical measurement, but also on investigations as to the housing and physical surroundings of the children. For purposes of examination, seventy-three schools, with 72,857 pupils, were divided into four social grades, including the poorest and wealthiest districts of the city. The report states that at each age, from five to eighteen, the average weight and height were uniformly below the standard of the anthropometrical committee, with the exception of those in the highest grade. They were in weight practically identical with the standard, and in height a shade over the standard. "It cannot be an accident," it says, "that boys from two-roomed houses should be 11.7 pounds lighter on an average than boys from four-roomed houses, and 4.7 inches smaller. Neither is it an accident that girls from one-roomed houses are, on the average, 14 pounds lighter and 5.3 inches shorter than the girls from four-roomed houses." The conclusion is inevitable that the poorest child suffers most in nutrition and growth. This is the most extensive investigation ever undertaken in Britain as to the heights and weights of school children in primary and higher-grade schools, and the report has just been issued as a Blue-Book.

Drama.

THE CAREER OF MANSFIELD.

Richard Mansfield, who died at New London last Friday, was born on the island of Heligoland in 1857, and was educated chiefly in England. At first he was designed for the Indian Civil Service; later he turned his attention to painting, even going to the length of opening a studio in Boston. Before long he returned to England and went on the stage. His first appearance was in a little piece by Alfred Cellier, called "Charity Begins at Home," which won temporary popularity. Not long afterwards he became associated with some of the earliest successes of the Gilbert and Sullivan comic operas. Report credits him with a capital performance of Sir Joseph Porter in "Pinafore," and the Major-General in "The Pirates of Penzance." As a singer he was always remarkably effec-

tive, having a baritone voice of great power and richness, and an admirable method. After a season of obscurity and occasional privation, he secured an engagement with the London Royalty Theatre Company, appearing in a variety of parts, among which were those of M. Phillips, in "Out of the Hunt"; Herbert Elwyn, in "Dust"; the Burgomaster, in "Geneviève de Brabant"; Old Sherman, in "The Fisherman's Daughter"; Brigard, in "Frou-Frou"; Ashley Merton, in "Meg's Diversion"; and Theophilus Woolston, in "Not Registered." Then in May, 1882, he played Laurent, in "The Mascotte."

In the autumn of that year he came to America and played first Dromez in "Les Manteaux Noirs"; next Nick and Jan in Planquette's "Rip Van Winkle," and the Lord Chancellor in "Iolanthe." While the "Iolanthe" company was in Baltimore he sprained his ankle and returned to New York. It was a lucky accident, inasmuch as it gave him a chance to volunteer for the part of Baron Cheverial in "A Parisian Romance," at the Union Square Theatre, in January, 1883. After that memorable evening he steadily grew in popularity. In "Prince Karl" he found a character which long displayed some of his most attractive gifts. Other parts in which he won favor before he set out on his career as a star were those of Von Dornfeld in "Alpine Roses"; Von Schnitzel, in "La Vie Parisienne"; Babolena, in "Gasperone"; Kraft, in "In Spite of All," and Baron de Mercas, in "Victor Durand."

His first tour as a star was made in 1886, when he started out with "A Parisian Romance" and "Prince Karl." In the following season he produced "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde." Theatrically, beyond question, this was a very striking performance, but it was a great belittlement, if not a positive vulgarization, of the original. In Stevenson's sketch, of course, it was only some strange and indefinable suggestion of uncanniness about Hyde that made him so repulsive, whereas Mansfield invested him with all the horrors that paint and hair and green lights could express. A more artistic performance was his André Rossini Mario de Jadot in "Monsieur" in 1887. He was then preparing for the invasion of London. After a preliminary appearance in "Jekyll and Hyde" at the Lyceum Theatre, he leased the Globe Theatre and there produced "Richard III." in a magnificent manner, so far as the scenery and costumes were concerned, although he took terrible liberties with the text. His Richard was received with scant critical praise and faint public approval. His London season, in fact, resulted in heavy loss. For this, however, he soon found compensation in his rapidly increasing fame at home.

His earliest important success after his return from England was in the "Beau Brummel" of Clyde Fitch, produced in New York May, 1890. Although his impersonation conspicuously lacked some of the essential characteristics of the exquisite of the period—notably ease of manner and artificial "graces" of deportment—it nevertheless was often exceedingly effective in its rigid individualism, its calculated insolence, and its drawling imperitability. For many years it ranked among his most popular characterizations. His Don Juan, his Emperor Nero, and his Tit-

lebat Titmouse, 1891-1892, are illustrations of the laudable ambition which impelled him to undertake the most widely diversified parts without much regard to his own personal or artistic qualifications. In Arthur Dimmesdale, the hero of "The Scarlet Letter," he found a part better suited to his abilities. In 1893 he attempted Shylock in "The Merchant of Venice," avoiding failure, but falling far short of triumph. His performance was marked by unflinching intelligence and vigor, but it was feeble in tragic power when compared with the embodiment of Edwin Booth, and tame and unimaginative in contrast with the romanticism of Irving. From Shakespeare he descended to the glittering shallows of George Bernard Shaw, being one of the first to discern the theatrical possibilities of "The Arms and the Man." In Captain Bluntschli he interpreted the cynical and paradoxical humor with brilliant effect. He added nothing to his reputation, though detracting nothing from it, by his Napoleon or his Don Pedro ("King of Peru"), but his intense acting in the grim Russian drama, "The Story of Rodion, the Student," made a strong impression. Soon afterward he won another success as Dick Dudgeon in Shaw's "The Devil's Disciple."

All this time he had been steadily building up a reputation as an actor of high ambition, artistic purpose, rare intelligence, and strangely interesting if rather monotonous personality, and a manager of great liberality, wide experience, and excellent taste. His scenery was always of the best, his costumes rich and accurate, his company well-trained and fairly competent, and his orchestral music admirable. A new production by Mansfield came to be regarded as a notable theatrical incident. Thus expectation was raised to a higher pitch than usual when it was announced in 1898 that he would produce Rostand's "Cyrano de Bergerac." To the general public Mr. Mansfield's Cyrano seemed to be a source of unalloyed delight, but to more discerning observers it brought disappointment. Able as it was, it nevertheless lacked true eloquence, the real fire of passion, full nobility of pathos, and poetic elevation. It was inferior to the impersonation of Coquelin, who played the last act with genuine inspiration. Mr. Mansfield next essayed the character of Shakespeare's Henry V., with only moderate success. In this one-character George Rignold, an actor of far lower intellectual calibre, greatly excelled him. In "Beaucaire" he once more exhibited his finished skill in eccentric and romantic comedy. This impersonation will always be accounted among the best of his lighter achievements. His Brutus, in "Julius Caesar," was sadly deficient in dignity and moral elevation, and further was blurred by elocutionary faults, long habitual to him, but especially conspicuous in such a part. It was not worthy to be compared with the Brutus of either Edwin Booth or E. L. Davenport. A more notable impersonation was that of his Czar Ivan, in "Ivan the Terrible," a minute and powerful study of senile suspicion, superstition, and savagery, blended with the consciousness of despotic authority. In this the actor manifested a clear conception, finished technical skill, and indisputable emotional power, albeit of a rather low order. In 1906 he furnished another proof of his enterprise, and intelligence by producing an

English version of "Le Misanthrope," a representation which was received with general favor, although it cannot be said that his own contribution to it was one of his most brilliant efforts. He followed this with a version of "Don Carlos," and then in the winter of 1906-7 put forward the elaborate representation of Ibsen's "Peer Gynt," which is said to have caused his physical breakdown.

Duffield & Co., New York, and Chatto & Windus, London, have arranged for the publication of a series to be called the Shakespeare Library, in which will be included various volumes indispensable to a thorough understanding of the author, but never before issued at reasonable prices. The library will be divided into four parts. Part first will include "The Old Spelling Shakespeare," published in forty volumes and in the orthography of the poet's own time, the text under the editorship of Dr. Furnivall; part second, The Shakespeare Classics, under the general editorship of Prof. I. Gollancz, will include the various romances, histories, plays, and poems used by Shakespeare as the originals or direct sources of his plays; part three, Shakespeare's England, will include volumes illustrative of the life, thought, and literature of England in the time of Shakespeare. A fourth part, to be called the Lamb Shakespeare for Young People, will be based on Charles and Mary Lamb's Tales, in which an attempt will be made to put into prose those passages from the plays with which the young reader should early become acquainted. The first of the volumes in the second part will be Lodge's "Rosalynde," the original of "As You Like It," edited by W. W. Greg. Other volumes to follow shortly will be Greene's "Dorastus and Fawnia," the original of the "Winter's Tale"; Brook's poem of "Romeus and Juliet," "The History of Hamlet," "The Play of King Leir and his Three Daughters," and various other source books. Among the first volumes to appear in Shakespeare's England will be "Robert Laneham's Letter," describing part of the entertainment given to Queen Elizabeth in Kenilworth Castle in 1575; Shakespeare's "Holinshed," edited by the late W. G. Boswell Stone; the Shakespeare Allusion-Book, in which the allusions originally collected by Dr. Ingleby, Miss L. Toulmin Smith, and Dr. Furnivall will be for the first time arranged in chronological order and supplemented with further material. The whole library is expected to be completed between September, 1907, and 1909.

It is now five years since the world has been talking about the new poem and play of Edmond Rostand—"Chantecler," in which animals were to speak as in the mysteries of the Middle Ages. The play was promised to Coquelin as a fit successor to "Cyrano de Bergerac." Since then Coquelin has had consecutively two Paris theatres, but he has been unable to present the new masterpiece. Stories are told of the poet's reading his work to the actor through a night, only to tear it up fastidiously in the morning. Now it is announced, semi-officially, as the result of a visit of Jean Coquelin to Rostand in his solitude at Cambo, that a contract has been signed by which "Chantecler" is to be delivered into the hands of Coquelin this coming autumn.

Music.

PLANS FOR THE OPERA.

Heinrich Conried has practically completed his plans for the winter at the Metropolitan Opera House. The season will be the longest ever attempted at the Metropolitan, beginning Monday, November 18, and lasting twenty weeks. Thursday evenings have been included in the series of regular subscription performances. The company engaged is as follows:

Sopranos—Mmes. Bessie Abott, Lina Cavalieri, Emma Eames, Geraldine Farrar, Rita Le Forna, Olive Fremstad, Johanna Gadski, Anne Girard, Martha Leffler-Burckhard, Lucille Lawrence, Lucy Lee Call, Marie Mattfield, Berta Morena, Marie Rapold, Marcella Sembrich, Marion Weed.

Mezzo-sopranos and contraltos—Mmes. Louise Homer, Josephine Jacoby, Frida Langendorff, Kirkby-Lunn.

Tenors—Messrs. Julius Bayer, Alessandro Bonci, Alois Burgstaller, Carl Burrian, Enrico Caruso, Andreas Dippel, Heinrich Knotz, George Lucas, Riccardo Martin, Giovanni Paroli, Albert Reiss, Charles Rousselière, Giuseppe Tecchi.

Baritones—Messrs. Bernard Begue, Giuseppe of Campanari, Eugene Dufliche, Otto Goritz, Adolf Muehlmann, Antonio Scotti, Franz Stiner, Riccardo Stracciari, Anton Van Rooy.

Basses—Messrs. Raffaele Barocchi, Robert Blass, Theodore Chaliapine, Marcel Journet, Vittorio Navarini, Pol Plançon.

Conductors—Messrs. S. Bovy (opera in French), Rodolfo Ferrari (opera in Italian), Aldred Hertz (opera in German), and Gustav Mahler.

Berta Morena, a dramatic soprano, has been singing with success at the Wagner festival at Munich. She has in her repertoire all the Wagner operas, as well as "Fidelio" and several operas in Italian. Martha Leffler-Burckhard, from the Berlin Opera House, will be heard during the latter part of the season, as she has only a short leave of absence. Frida Langendorff, contralto, is from the Prague Opera House. Rita Le Forna will be heard in light soprano rôles. For the German operas, Heinrich Knotz will return for the first two months of the season, and will then be followed by Carl Burrian; while Alois Burgstaller will join the company in the latter part of December, and will remain until the end of the season. Enrico Caruso will sing for the entire season, and Alessandro Bonci, who was at the Manhattan Opera House last year, has also been engaged. George Lucas, who has been singing first tenor at the Paris Opéra and at Nice, will assume the rôles formerly entrusted to Jacques Bars, in addition to appearing in French and Italian opera. Riccardo Martin is a young American tenor. With the addition of Giuseppe Campanari, the list of baritones will be the same as last year. He will be heard, after an absence of several years, in his favorite parts. Among the bassi the interest will centre in Theodore Chaliapine, the Russian, who has been warmly received in Paris and Monte Carlo. Pol Plançon will come to America for the last three months of the season. Raffaele Barocchi, an excellent basso-buffo, will take the place of the late Archangelo Rossi.

Among the new productions will be "Iris," by Mascagni, in which the principal rôles will be assigned to Emma Eames and Signor Caruso. Caruso will also sing in the revival of Verdi's "Otello," in "Adri-

enne Lecouvreur," by Cilea, perhaps in "Andrea Chenier," and in Verdi's "Trovatore." Besides "Iris," Mme. Eames will add the rôle of Donna Anna in "Don Giovanni" to her repertoire. Boito's "Mefistofele," with Chaliapine in the title rôle, and Mme. Cavalieri or Miss Farrar, will be produced on a great scale. Chaliapine will also appear as Basilio in Rossini's "Barber of Seville," as Mephisto in Gounod's "Faust," and possibly as Leporello in "Don Giovanni." To the German repertoire will be added a completely new production of Wagner's "Der Fliegende Holländer," and, later on, under Mahler's direction, Weber's "Freischütz" and Beethoven's "Fidelio." Mme. Fremstad will sing the rôle of Isolde, and will also be ready with "Fidelio." "Die Meistersinger" will be revived early in the season. The rest of the Wagner operas, including "Der Ring des Nibelungen" and "Parsifal," will be given as usual. Mme. Gadski will appear in her usual repertoire, including Elvira in "Don Giovanni," and, it is hoped, Leonora in "Trovatore." Kreutzer's "Das Nachtlager von Granada" will, in all probability, be offered. Knotz will add to his repertoire "Otello" in Italian.

The Macmillan Co. is about to publish "The Evolution of Modern Orchestration," by Louis Adolphe Coerne. The basis of this book is a thesis, which together with the orchestral score of the opera "Zenobia," was accepted by Harvard University when the degree of Ph.D. was conferred on Mr. Coerne in 1905.

There will be no dearth of violinists in our concert halls the coming season. Among those expected are Fritz Kreisler, Maud Powell, Jan Kubelik, Mischa Elman, Marie Nichols, Hugo Heermann, Florizel Reuter, and Francis Macmillen.

The neglect of Massenet in New York is difficult to explain. In Paris he is far more popular than Puccini. No fewer than ninety-three performances of six of his operas were given at the Opéra-Comique last season. The six operas were "La Navarraise," "Marie Magdaleine," "Griseldis," "Le Jongleur de Notre Dame," "Manon," and "Werther."

Art.

Art Primers of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art, Philadelphia. By Edwin Atlee Barber, A.M., Ph.D., Curator. Tin Enameled Pottery, Maiolica, Delft, and other Stanniferous Faience; Salt Glazed Stoneware, Germany, Flanders, England, and the United States. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. 90 cents net each.

The latest handbook of pottery usually reflects in epitome the taste of collectors of thirty years ago—a defect, if it is such, from which Dr. Barber's monographs are not free. Particularly the little work on "Tin Enameled Pottery" avoids present-day enthusiasms in favor of those which have become traditional. The stanniferous pottery of the near Orient, for example, immensely more interesting in the sight of advanced collectors than Delft, or its English imitations, is dismissed thus:

It is a well-established fact that the bricks of Babylonia and Assyria were coat-

ed with a white stanniferous enamel many centuries before the appearance of maiolica in Italy. At a later period tin enamel was in use by the Arabs, and early in the fourteenth century this method of glazing was extensively employed by the Moorish potters of Spain.

No space whatever is given to the superb creations of the Persian potters and of their contemporaries on the northern slopes of the Caucasus, although scholarly investigation has been particularly concerned of late years with this Oriental development. Mention is not made of recent controversies as to the so-called "Rhodian" enamelled pottery, which, has turned out—so most scholars are convinced—to be a product of Anatolian shops and not to have been made on the island of Rhodes at all. Yet the best of this Levantine pottery, marked with conventions obviously derived from far Eastern sources, is so beautiful that it makes nearly all the productions of the potter's art in lands of western Europe—excepting perhaps some of the finest maiolica of the Italian Renaissance—seem ineffectual and unimaginative. To ignore it is to follow the habit of practically all collectors of a few years ago, and of too many collectors of to-day. Some of the books, it is true, which are cited by Dr. Barber as those to which he is especially indebted for facts presented, have similarly failed to give any adequate account of the works of artists whose art came down directly from potters contemporary with Omar Khayyâm. Such a work, however, as the little handbook on "Maiolika" by von Falke of the Kunstgewerbe Museum of Berlin does not evade this newer enthusiasm of the amateurs.

Within limits, then, imposed evidently by personal judgment and predilection rather than by collation of the latest judgments, Dr. Barber has prepared a safe little book. A particularly valuable portion discusses the Mexican maiolicas, regarding which many facts not hitherto published are brought out. On apparently good grounds Dr. Barber discards the theory that the presence of Oriental design in much Mexican pottery is due to an importation to this continent of Chinese potters. He contends that Oriental wares came into Mexico through the port of Acapulco, and that their designs were copied by native artists. In support of such a view it is notable that Orientalism frequently appears unexpectedly in one and another of the European applied arts. In early Italian maiolica it is not surprising to find ornamentation that is clearly derived from near or far East; but it is sometimes startling to rote, around one of the realistic representations of the high Renaissance, decoration that is unmistakably Chinese.

In other respects Dr. Barber's book is judicious and accurate. Considerable space is given to Delft and to the English stanniferous potteries. These are unquestionably the wares which are of especial interest to the class of amateurs for whom a manual of this character is likely to be valuable. The numerous attempts to produce stanniferous faience in the United States are described. The illustrations are drawn mostly from the collections of the Pennsylvania Museum, of which the author is curator; though objects from the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston; the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, the Trumbull Prime collection at Princeton University,

and the private collection of George Cuthbert Gillespie are included. The treasures of faience, valuable but not yet judiciously weeded out, in the Metropolitan Museum of Art are not even mentioned.

The primer on "Salt Glazed Stoneware" invites less criticism on the ground of what is not comprised, because this product belongs to the countries with whose industrial arts Dr. Barber is particularly familiar. Since the invention of the process of glazing by throwing common salt into the superheated kiln immense quantities of highly fired, partially vitrified stoneware have been put upon the market by German, Flemish, French, English, and American potters. Comparatively little of it has high artistic merit—as compared with Chinese porcelains or with Persian enamelled tiles and pottery. It is more adapted to containing beer, say, than rose leaves or tea leaves; and its ornamentation, when this is worth anything at all, is in character. The English, imitative in this as in other branches of ceramic art—for their sole original achievement was the creation of Wedgwood—did not sensibly improve upon the quality of the Grès de Flandres or of the wares of Grenzhäusen and Bunzlau. At the same time the potteries of Albion, in full blast for many years, have made the different varieties of salt glazed stoneware—Fulham, Nottingham, Staffordshire, and Lambeth—very well known, and, for historical reasons at least, interesting. The modern Doulton ware Dr. Barber describes with evident enthusiasm, and he names Miss Hannah B. Barlow, who draws spirited animal pictures on prosperous-looking and substantial British vases, as a close second to Rosa Bonheur.

As regards American pottery, Dr. Barber writes authoritatively, for he has given more attention to the subject than, probably, any other American. His account of the establishment of stoneware potteries in the American colonies as far back as the beginning of the eighteenth century and of recent developments of the art in a number of our cities is particularly enlightening. The tributes to the work of Charles C. Benham of Brooklyn and of Mrs. S. S. Freckleton of Chicago are well deserved.

The next volume in Doubleday, Page & Co.'s Art Primers, by Professor Barber, is "Artificial Soft Paste Porcelain." It includes the Frit Porcelain of France, Italy, and other Continental countries, and England, with a chapter on Marks.

The F. A. Stokes Company will issue this autumn "The Story of American Painting," by Charles H. Caffin. The book is to contain reproductions of 143 paintings of American artists. The same firm will publish a series entitled "Masterpieces in Color." Each volume will treat of the life and work of a painter, and will contain reproductions in color. The volumes for this autumn are on Velasquez, Reynolds, Romney, and Turner.

The comparatively neglected subject of Roman sculpture is treated by Mrs. Arthur Strong, in a volume published in this country by the Scribners. Mrs. Strong follows Wickhoff and others; for the most part, and while we detest the jargon of "illusionism," "frontalism," and the rest, in which

the criticism is couched, her book will be found useful and even interesting, while it is unusually fully illustrated. Partly on account of the abundance of illustrations, the volume is much larger in bulk than its fellows, but the text is also near a hundred pages longer than the average.

W. Roberts's volume on Sir William Beechey, in the same series, is a very dull book, the text consisting of little more than an expansion of the list of works that is given at the end. The illustrations are well enough done, but the seeing of a number of Beechey's pictures together is not calculated to enhance one's estimate of his importance as an artist.

Another artist who does not gain by a collection of his works is Murillo. One can stand one Immaculate Conception, but not a dozen and a half of them, each more sickly-sweet than the others. The glory of Mr. Calvert's volume on that artist in the Spanish Series (John Lane) is that it contains reproductions of more than 165 of the Spanish painter's pictures. The result is surfeiting in the extreme.

Alfred E. Jones's handsome volume on "The Church-plate of the Diocese of Bangor" will be regarded as distinctly encouraging by the historian and the antiquary. Judging from the descriptive list, this district can still boast of a considerable number of curious and beautiful pieces. The Pre-Reformation and Elizabethan examples are, of course, the most valuable. Among the earlier group special mention should be made of the Llandudwyn chalice, one of two still left in Wales, which escaped turning "into decent communion-cups," and the fifteenth-century Mazer bowl at the church of Clynog in Carnarvonshire. Elizabethan chalices appear to be more rarely met with in these regions than in the diocese of St. David's or of Llandaff. The surviving examples exhibit few differences of form, but no small variety of decoration even when they are from the hand of the same artist. The volume, which is richly illustrated, has been put out by Bemrose & Sons.

The house of Alphonse Picard & Fils begins a series of complete reference books in art-history by the "Manuel d'Art Musulman," comprising Egypt, Syria, North Africa, Spain, Sicily, Persia, Turkestan, Asia Minor, Turkey in Europe, India, Birmania, and the Far East. The first volume—Architecture—is by H. Saladin, a member of the archaeological commission of North Africa. After a general introduction, he takes up systematically the various schools—Syro-Egyptian, Mogreb, Persian, Ottoman, with the monuments of India, China, and the Far East. The second volume—Plastic and Industrial Arts—is by Gaston Migeon, curator at the Louvre Museum. He begins with a brief history of the Mussulman civilizations, and then takes up in succession painting and miniature, sculpture, wood carving, ivories, goldsmith's work and jewelry, coins, brass incrustation, bronzes, and iron, arms, ceramics, glass enamels, rock crystals, and engraved stones, tissues, and carpets. Each volume is 500 pages 8vo., and has about 800 illustrations, with the very moderate price per volume unbound of thirty francs. Those who know the difficulty of finding the information essential to an understanding of

art-history, or even of history in general where art is concerned, will appreciate the value of such volumes. The series is to continue with three volumes on prehistoric, Celtic, and Gallo-Roman art; and others on Byzantine art by the well-known specialist, Prof. Charles Diehl; on Primitive Christian art; and two further volumes of C. Enlart's archaeology of the Middle Ages, comprising furniture, industrial arts, sculpture, painting, stained glass, and iconography.

John Belcher has been president of the Royal Institute of British Architects; and he is one of the two authors of an important book published six years ago, "Later Renaissance Architecture in England," a folio with photographic plates. He has now issued a thin octavo, imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, and entitled "Essentials in Architecture: An Analysis of the Principles and Qualities to Be Looked For in Buildings." It is fully illustrated, with a photogravure frontispiece and half-tone prints, seventy-four pictures in all, of which about half are full page. The subjects are chosen from all parts of Europe and all periods since the tenth century, with at least one ancient Grecian temple to illustrate what no modern building would explain so well. The text is a brief examination of the general principles of design which the author finds in his architectural examples. "Balance and Symmetry" (p. 122) are exemplified by fig. 55, the front on the Embankment of Somerset House, London. The next plate is the east front of the Louvre, the famous colonnade; and two paragraphs of the warmest praise are given to the design of Perrault for other merits than symmetrical arrangement alone. A third plate shows Greenwich Hospital, which is announced to be "a more extended example of fine balance and symmetry." The author is staunch in his advocacy of the sound doctrines of verity, simplicity, and realism of design. He shows a half-finished steel-cage-built skyscraper as an example of what ought not to be, because violating this essential requirement of truth. The Fuller building at Twenty-third Street is shown, and we are told that it "stands condemned as pretending to be what it is not." And so the examples praised, Newgate, the Palazzo Quaratese, the lovely renaissance narthex of Santa Maria delle Grazie, Arezzo, and the famous monument of Mastino II. della Scala, are chosen to present different forms of truthful expression. One likes particularly the author's frank advocacy of a visible tie-rod in cases where the arch cannot be solidly held by its abutments. He is inclined to denounce the devices used in the case of the Albert Memorial, where a concealed structure of iron prevents the spreading of the great arches. In these ways the book may be useful, and one has only to regret the too obvious and every-day tone of the criticism. It is an odd fault to find with the a book devoted to analysis—but one does really long for a little more subtlety, a little finer splitting of hairs, and here and there something unexpected.

The Chauchard collection of French paintings of the school of 1830 has long been an object of curiosity to art-lovers. In the July promotion of the Legion of Honor the French Government has recognized the collector's patriotic merits by

conferring on him the highest grade of the order. It is a belated recompense for saving the *Angelus* of Millet from its American purchasers. The occasion has been taken to publish some interesting details of the magnificent collection. It is housed at present in the owner's Paris residence on the Avenue Velasquez; but it is understood that it will eventually become national property by legacy. The collection numbers some 150 paintings of its special school. Of Millet, besides the *Angelus*, there is the standing shepherdess, *La Bergère*—knitting, with her sheep browsing behind her; the *Vanneur* (winnowing), exhibited at the Salon of 1848; the *Fileuse*, a spinning woman seated by the roadside; a *Petite Bergère*; a notable pastel *La Fermière*; and finally the wonderful moonlight scene, *La Rentrée des Moutons dans le Parc* (a shepherd driving home his belated flock). There are not less than forty paintings by Corot, most of them masterpieces and, together, forming a complete exposition of his art. There are several *Mornings and Evenings*, with characteristic sky and water; a *Danse des Nymphes* and *Danse Rustique* in woodland glades; the *Chevrier* (goats and goat herd in a forest amid moss-grown rocks); and *L'Amour Désarmé*—a nude woman holding up the bow which she has taken from the pleading Cupid at her feet. Troyon has almost an equal place. Besides the numerous paintings of oxen and cows in his usual style, there is a *Return from the Market* and a *Gamekeeper with his Dogs*. Of Théodore Rousseau—*primitif* and leader of 1830—there are two forest roads—*La Charrette* and *L'Avenue de la Forêt de l'Isle Adam*—and the very fine *Orage* (a storm over Bas-Préau); and other important canvases of this painter, whose work is not easily accessible to students. There are good examples of Daubigny and Jules Dupré; ten paintings of the best time of Ziem (Venice and Constantinople); and among other specimens of Diaz, the particularly noteworthy *Sous-Bois* (forest at Barbizon) and the picturesque sorceress Maléficé. To another group belong the *Tiger Hunt* of Delacroix; a *Fantasia* of Fromentin; good examples of Decamps; and a half-dozen superb feudal scenes of Isabey. A special list would have to be made of the works of Meissonnier—paintings, sketches, and studies. It is in the Chauchard collection that Frenchmen will have to study this master. This by no means exhausts the treasures of the collection even in painting. It is also rich in art objects, some of historic interest. There is the famous drawing of Moreau le Jeune—*La Revue dans la Plaine des Sablons*—bought at the Goncourt sale. And there are extremely rare series of Gobelins and Beauvais tapestries.

Finance.

THE AUTUMN TEST OF THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.

It is a tradition of the money markets that, in a year of uncertainty, September is the time when the real nature of the situation is tested. For this the sufficiently familiar reason is that the crop shipments ordinarily start on a large scale with the

opening of September, and that the communities from which the crops are moved begin at that time to call heavily on their own-outlying reserves of currency. A decade or more ago, the cause of what were then and are still called the interior remittances of currency was that the West, then a community ill-provided with capital, came to the Eastern banks to borrow.

Such needs are normal result of harvesting and shipping the agricultural products of the year. In the first place, the harvest transforms a vast district from a comparatively inactive trading community, with no great demand for ready cash, into the busiest part of the United States. Hundreds of thousands of laborers are employed in gathering, storing, and shipping the grain; there must, therefore, be an exceptional amount of actual currency for wages. Furthermore, in anticipation of these supplies of cash in the purses of the laborers, merchants throughout the crop country provide themselves with goods, and must have money for making small change and carrying their stocks. Behind all this stand the interior banks, which have been able, during the dull season which ends about this time, to conduct their affairs on a fairly narrow margin of reserves, but which now find it necessary to respond to expanding trade with largely increased local loans, and which are therefore compelled to add to their reserves in order to support the resultant fresh liabilities.

Thus there is no mystery about the much-discussed "harvest movement"; it is, in short, a natural flow of capital and currency to the part of the country which peremptorily needs them. The only difference now, as compared with a dozen years ago, is that the great wealth of the prosperous West, since the turn in agricultural prosperity during 1897 and 1898, has cancelled that section's debts to the East, and placed it in a position of lender rather than borrower. In other words, where, in such a year as 1890, the Western banks came to the East in September to borrow, they now send their own money to the East in the inactive seasons, leaving it on deposit with banks at New York and elsewhere, to be drawn home at harvest. The money they call for is their own. This is the condition at the present time; it explains why even the urgent demand for money in the East, and the very low level touched by New York bank reserves, cannot prevent the movement of money in quantity to the West.

A month or two ago, unquestionable uneasiness existed as to how New York could meet these calls. The New York bank position was weak, and, what was more, to the point, European markets, which usually provide the capital in gold to replace currency sent West, were generally taking the attitude that the usual remittances to New York could not be spared. Had this policy been pursued, conditions during the three or four coming weeks would have been seriously embarrassing. A fortnight ago, something like panic broke out in financial London, based primarily on belief that New York would draw such quantities of gold as to place the Bank of England in an awkward position. The bank had already, with such expectations in mind, advanced its own discount rate to a much higher level

than is usual in August; following this, the private banks of London started to take the unusual protective measure of refusing to discount American paper sent forward to relieve pressure on New York institutions. But at this hasty and unwise procedure the Bank of England promptly entered the breach, accepted all the bills and, in fact, taught the private bankers that caution was one thing and unreasonable timidity another. At the same time London began to realize what it had certainly not realized before—that in the markets for international trade, the United States was by no means as weak as events of the past two years had led the foreigner to imagine.

The outcome of the world's harvests, which determine largely international credit, has been remarkable in many ways. As will be remembered, there was an acute apprehension through many weeks in the early summer of an actual harvest failure in at least half a dozen countries. The upshot has been that, although our own wheat crop will certainly be much reduced from a year ago, it never-

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theless will in all probability be large enough to spare a handsome surplus for export. This happens at a time when crops of Continental Europe have run so far short of normal as to increase largely the requirements from other countries. The Liverpool *Corn Trade News* not long ago figured out that, while in 1906 the wheat requirements of importing nations were 67,500,000 quarters of eight bushels, and the export supplies available were 67,680,000, at the present time requirements are 71,700,000, and supplies only 62,500,000. The bearing of these facts on American export trade—supposing even a moderate surplus from our wheat crop of 1907—is sufficiently obvious. The situation has already been reflected in the advance of wheat to a price 25 per cent. above that of a year ago—which means that, even with a heavy reduction in the export surplus, the aggregate value of our grain exports may approach, if it does not actually equal, that of 1906.

In the end, therefore, the United States would be able to command from Europe the usual remittances, even if Europe should refuse to follow the usual practice of remitting in advance through the medium of bankers' drafts. But that, under such circumstances Europe would refuse the advance of capital, which in any case it would have to surrender later, is not probable. The process has begun already, and presumably it will continue a legitimate factor of relief throughout the autumn. At the same time, through the medium of our wholesale Stock Exchange liquidation during August, the burden on New York banks has been so far reduced that the surplus reserve, though still below what might be desired, stands nearly four times as high as it did a year ago, and exceeds by 50 per cent. the figures even of this date in 1905. It is with this very fortunate preparation that the markets enter the trying period of the autumn.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrieux, Jean S. *Mélanges Littéraires*. Henry Brown. Arthur Judson. The Foreign Missionary. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50 net.
Burrell, David J. *The Wayfarers of the Bible*. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1 net.
Campbell, Wilfred. *Jan of the Orcades*. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.50.
Demosthenis *Orations*. Edited by S. H. Butcher. Henry Browde.
Esther. Edited by A. W. Streane. Putnam.
George, Henry. *Addresses at the Funeral of*. Compiled by Edmund Yardley. Chicago: Public Publishing Co.
Goodell, Charles L. *Pastoral and Personal Evangelism*. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1 net.
Gunsauls, Frank W. *The Higher Ministries of Recent English Poetry*. Fleming H. Revell Co. \$1.25 net.
Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army. Vol. XII. Washington.
Koch, Max. Richard Wagner. Lemcke & Buechner.
Michelet, Jules. *La Mer*. Henry Browde.
Montrésor, F. F. *The Burning Torch*. Dutton. \$1.50.
Newton, Charles B., and Edward B. Treat. *Outline for Review in Roman History—Outline for Review in Greek History*. 25 cents each. American Book Co.
Podmore, Frank. Robert Owen. 2 vols. Appleton.
Rich, Charles Edward. *A Voyage with Captain Dynamite*. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1.
Richardson, Frank. 2835 Mayfair. Mitchell Kennerly. \$1.50.
Stern, Daniel. *Les Journées de Juin, 1848*. Henry

Darwinism To-Day

By VERNON L. KELLOGG, Professor in Leland Stanford; author of "American Insects," etc. \$2.00 net; by mail \$2.10 Ready Sept. 7.

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